

The ATHLETIC JOURNAL



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September, 1925

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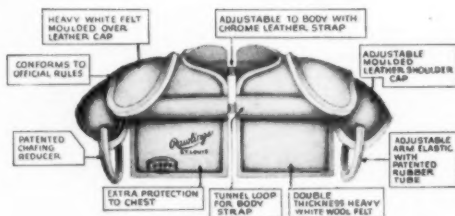


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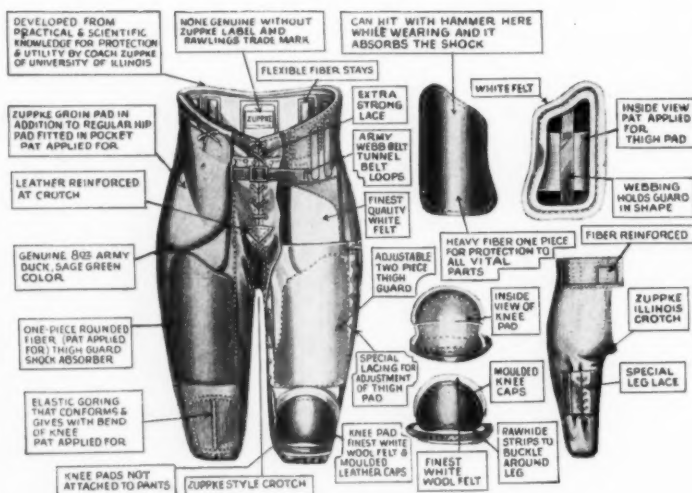
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The September Contributors

Mr. Gavin Hadden, the author of the article "Stadium Design," of which the first section appears in the September Athletic Journal, the second in the October issue, received his bachelor's degree at Harvard in 1910 and his degree in civil engineering at Columbia in 1912. He was the engineer for the Franklin Field Stadium, University of Pennsylvania, which was completed in 1922. He designed the Cornell Crescent Stadium, Cornell University, finished in 1924. He also designed Aldrich Field and the Baseball Stadium at Brown University, which was completed in 1924. He was co-designer of the Brown University Amphitheatre, which is now nearing completion, and also of the University of Denver Stadium, which is now under construction. He designed the general athletic field at Cornell University and has been the designer or co-designer of numerous athletic fields, stadia, field houses, gymnasias, locker buildings, swimming pools and squash courts for other university, school, college, club, park commission and municipal clients.

"Close Formation Plays" contributed by Frank G. McCormick of Sioux Falls, South Dakota, will be of interest to every football coach. Mr. McCormick learned his football at the University of South Dakota under "Buck" Whittemore, the old Brown University guard and coach. When Mr. McCormick was at South Dakota, the University played such teams as the University of Minnesota, the University of Michigan and Notre Dame University close games, winning some of them. He played on the 88th Division Army team both in this country and in France and later was a member of the athletic staff at the University of Illinois. For the past three years he has been coach of New Columbus College, Sioux Falls, where he has made a reputation of being one of the hardest coaches to beat in his section of the country.

E. E. Wieman is known to Journal readers, having already contributed an article on "The Yost Field House at Michigan." Mr. Wieman played tackle and full-back at Michigan in 1916, 1917 and 1920. In 1918 he served as captain absentia while playing tackle on the championship service team at Ellington Field, Texas. In his senior year at Michigan he was elected to Phi Beta Kappa. He was awarded the Conference medal for proficiency in scholarship and athletics and was also awarded the one hundred dollar prize that is given each year by the Athletic Association to the "M" man who makes the best scholastic record. Upon graduation from Michigan in 1921, he was appointed varsity line coach and assistant athletic director at Michigan.

Mr. Frank Lane, who has edited the questions and answers section in the September Journal, has agreed to conduct these columns in succeeding numbers. He invites any coach or official to write him about any unusual play in football and agrees to answer the question in the Journal. He is now connected with the Putnam Hooker Company, 105 E. Third Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. Mr. Lane is an old Detroit University athlete who officiates extensively each fall. He has been one of the leaders in the organization of the Ohio State Officials' Association.

The ATHLETIC JOURNAL

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CONTENTS

Football Rules for 1925.....	3
<i>By John L. Griffith</i>	
Stadium Design	5
<i>By Gavin Hadden, C. E.</i>	
A Pictorial Study of Fundamentals.....	13
Close Formation Plays.....	18
<i>By Frank G. McCormick</i>	
Editorials	20
One Idea of Football.....	22
<i>By John L. Griffith</i>	
Amateurism—Pro and Con.....	28
Changes in the Coaching Personnel for 1925.....	33
The Functions of Competitive Sport.....	34
<i>By Elton E. Wieman</i>	
News from the State High School Athletic Associations	38
Questions and Answers.....	42
<i>By Frank G. Lane</i>	
National Collegiate Athletic Association as a Competitive Organization	45

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Football Rules for 1925

No Revolutionary or Radical Changes Have Been Made in the New Football Rules, but Some of the Alterations Are Important. The Most Important Is the One That Has to Do With a Blocked Kick Behind the Line of Scrimmage

By John L. Griffith

WHILE not many important changes were made in the football rules this year, still some changes were made and in some places the rules were edited. The purpose of this article is to give the coaches a list of the revisions and changes.

Rule III—Section 3.

The next to the last sentence last year read: "Shoulder guards must be as thoroughly padded on the outside as on the inner side." The 1925 rule reads in this regard, "Shoulder pads, unless made of soft material, must be thoroughly padded on the outside." It is left for the umpire to decide whether or not the shoulder guard is thoroughly padded on the outside. This rule was made to prohibit the use of pads which were manufactured especially for men with injured shoulders.

Rule IV—Section 1.

The following note has been added, "The Rules Committee recommends and urges that school games be limited to a maximum of forty-eight minutes and divided into four periods of not to exceed twelve minutes each in duration." In high school games very frequently the captains cannot agree regarding the length of the halves. When this happens the official has no option but to rule according to the book and the rules book calls for fifteen minute periods. The note referred to above does not make it mandatory that twelve minute periods be played in school games, and in cases of disagreement the officials will hardly have any more authority this year than in the past to shorten the halves. Since the Committee, however, recommends and urges that school teams play shorter periods than college teams it is to be hoped that captains will agree and not appeal to the referee to shorten the periods.

In Rule IV the second paragraph of Section 1 in the last sentence, the 1924 rules stated that the offended side should have the choice of goal and might elect whether to put the ball in play on the opponent's twenty-five yard line or whether the offended side should put the ball in play on its own twenty-five yard line. The new word-

ing is as follows: "The offended side shall have the choice of goal and may elect whether it will put the ball in play on its opponent's thirty-five yard line or whether the offending side shall put the ball in play on its own fifteen yard line." This is a good change because under the rule as it read last year there was never any real question as to what the offended team would do under the circumstances.

Rule IV—Section 3-B.

The last sentence where it last year read "twenty-five yard line" in two places the new rule reads "thirty-five yard line" and "fifteen yard line." This change conforms with the others made in Section 1.

Rule VI—Page 12.

Under the definition of kick-off the new wording is as follows: "The kick-off is the term used to designate the opening play of the first and third periods and shall consist of a place kick from the forty yard line from the side having the kick-off." In 1924 the kick-off was from the middle of the field.

Rule VI—Section 7.

The italicized words have been added: "In no case shall it count a goal if the ball after leaving the kicker's foot touches the ground or a player of the kicker's side before

passing over the cross-bar or the goal post." This rule is further explained under Rule XVIII, Section 3.

Rule VI—Section 13-B.

The italicized words are new, "When the ball goes out of bounds after a kick *which is across the scrimmage line* before touching a player who is on side." This change in the definition is made necessary because of the change made in Rule XVIII, Section 3.

Rule VI—Section 16-B.

The italicized words in this section have been omitted in this year's rules: "From a kick which bounds back from an opponent or one of the kicker's own side *who, when struck, is behind his goal line.*"

Rule VII—Section 1-A.

The second sentence now reads, "The winner of the toss shall have the choice of goal or of kicking off or of receiving the kick-off, which choice shall not be revokable. *The loser of the toss shall have the choice of the options which the winner does not select.*" It will be noted that this means the winner of the toss now has the choice of receiving the kick-off, of kicking off or of the goal, and the loser of the toss is also given a choice of options. Last year the winner of the toss had the choice of goal or of kicking off.

Rule VIII—Section 1.

The words, "Forty yard line" are now used in place of "the middle of the field." The section reads: "the side having the kick-off shall kick off behind its own forty yard line or any point directly behind it."

Rule VIII—Section 3.

The rule last year read: "The opponents shall be behind their own forty yard line until the ball is kicked." The 1925 wording is as follows: "The opponents shall be behind a line ten yards in advance of the spot from which the kick is to be made until the ball is kicked." This change in wording is made necessary because of the change in the kick-off rule.

Rule IX—Section 2, "Penalty."

This section now reads "If any player (with the above privileges to snapper-back excepted) is ahead of

The most important changes in the football rules are: 1—Any player may recover a blocked kick which does not cross the line of scrimmage. 2—A punted ball, which crosses the line of scrimmage after being touched by a defensive line man is not a free ball. 3—The kick-off is from the forty yard line instead of the middle of the field. 4—The penalty for a line man (either offensive or defensive) being off-side in the scrimmage line is a loss of five yards only. 5—If a kicked ball goes out of bounds before crossing the scrimmage line it shall belong to the player who first obtains possession of it.

his line—loss of five yards, *the down and point to be gained remaining the same.*” This means that the penalty for an off-side on the scrimmage line will still be the loss of five yards. The point to be gained for first down will this year remain the same unless the distance penalty places the ball in advance of that point.

Rule X—Section A.

The second sentence now contains the italicized words, “in no case shall it count a goal *if the ball, after leaving the kicker's foot, touches the ground or a player of the kicker's side* before passing over the cross bar or goal posts.

Rule XIII—Section 8.

The last sentence has been changed as indicated: “But if it strikes any player who is entitled to get it and then goes out of bounds *or if it goes out of bounds before crossing the scrimmage line* it shall belong to the player who first obtains possession of it.” While this play would not happen very often, the change in the rule makes a very radical alteration. Previously if a kicked ball, except on the kick-off, went out of bounds it belonged to the opponents. This change means that a punted ball crossing the side line before it crosses the scrimmage line is a free ball. It would be surprising if some difficulties do not arise out of this change in the rule this year.

Rule XIV—Section 1.

The Committee has provided that time shall be taken out “*during all substitutions (except as provided in Section 4.)*”

Rule XV—Section 5.

As a matter of editing the Committee has eliminated the word “other” in the last sentence which formerly read “No other player of the team.” The sentence now reads: “After a signal for a fair catch has been made no player of the team which has signaled shall be allowed to run with the ball unless it shall have been fumbled.” It would have helped if the Committee had defined “fumbled” as used in this section because questions sometimes arise whether or not a man may be allowed to run with a ball that is fumbled but does not hit the ground. In other words, is it a fumble if the ball does not touch the ground?

Rule XVIII—Section 3.

The following words which appeared at the end of the first sentence of Section 3, have been eliminated: “Any player may, however, recover a kicked ball which has not crossed the line of scrimmage.” Further, in the last sentence of the first paragraph of Section 3 last year's rules read: “If a

return kick be made.” The 1925 rule reads: “If any return kick be made.”

The following two paragraphs have been added to Section 3:

“When a kicked ball is blocked by either side or for any reason does not cross the line of scrimmage, it may be recovered by either side; but if a member of the kicking side recovers it, the play shall count a down, the point to be gained remaining the same.

“If a kick be partially blocked by either side and thereafter crosses the line of scrimmage, the ball shall be played in the same manner as though the blocking had not occurred, unless it touched a player of the kicking side on an attempt at goal from the field, in which case the goal, if made, shall not be allowed.”

It will be noticed that this rule now provides that any player may recover a kicked ball which does not cross the line of scrimmage. This means that if a kick is blocked by an opponent or kicked into a member of the kicker's team it is to be played like a fumbled ball. Further, a kicked ball that hits a man on either team and then crosses the scrimmage line will be played just as though it had not been touched, with the exception that if the ball touches a player of the kicking side when a goal from the field is being attempted. This is a good change because frequently it happens that a punted ball is barely touched by the fingers of a defensive man and the ball then rolls behind the goal line and a member of the kicking team falls on it for a touchdown, the men on defense, not realizing that it was a free ball.

Rule XIX—Section 2-B.

The italicized words have been eliminated: “(A kick shall be regarded as having given the opponents such chance if the ball shall have crossed the line of scrimmage *or if it shall have been touched by an opponent.*)”

Rule XXI—Section 5-C.

The penalty for clipping this year is “loss of twenty-five yards from the spot of the foul.” Last year the penalty was “loss of fifteen yards either from spot where the ball was put in play or from the spot of the foul at the option of the offended side.”

This will eliminate a lot of guessing on the part of the captain of the offended team.

Last year under Rule XXI, Section 8, there was the old provision that there should not be any flying tackles or tackling below the knees. It is encouraging that the Committee has this year eliminated those two rules because neither was ever enforced. The public sentiment of players,

coaches and officials alike supported flying and low tackles. Consequently, a player was seldom, if ever, penalized for leaving his feet in tackling. The writer has contended for several years that we should not have any rules in athletics that are unnecessary and that the coaches and officials as a class do not believe in. This was a rule of that sort.

Rule XXII, Section 3, now reads: “In case of injury to a player one representative of the player's team may come upon the field of play to attend the injured player, *but before communicating with any player he must first report to the referee or umpire.*” This means that a trainer can come out on the field to attend an injured player but he must report to either the umpire or referee before approaching any player. It was found last year that men were sometimes injured and the trainers could not attract the attention of the officials, and consequently were not permitted to come on the field.

Rule XXIII—Section 4.

The Committee has added at the end of the rule these words: “*Except as otherwise specified in these rules.*” One exception to this rule that may be noted is that provided under Rule IX, Section 2, where a defensive man charges off-side. His team is penalized five yards but the down and point to be gained remain the same.

Rule XXIII—Section 8.

The following addition has been made—changes in italics—“If a foul is committed behind the goal line that does not involve change of possession of the ball, the penalty for which, if enforced, would place the ball behind the goal line, *the ball shall be down on the one yard line unless it was put in play on or inside the one yard line, in which case the penalty shall be one-half the distance to the goal line from the spot where the ball was put in play.*”

Rule XXIII—Section 9.

The wording in the first sentence has been clarified to read as follows: “*In case fouls are declared against both teams on the same play, etc.*”

Rule XXIV.

Note the Committee eliminated the suggestion about the use of a gun by a field judge because the carrying of a gun is contrary to law in some states. Where legal, there is no reason why a gun may not be used by mutual consent.

Rule XXV—Section 5.

The following has been omitted from the previous rule: “*If in the event of the ball being kicked into a player of the kicker's side he shall report the fact to the umpire.*”

Stadium Design

By Gavin Hadden, C. E.

Paper Presented Before the New York Section of the American Society of Civil Engineers, May 20, 1925

THIS subject, as one examines it, is a rather appallingly large one. Chronologically, it extends over more than twenty-three centuries. Geographically, it has reached every continent on the globe. And think of all the arts and sciences, all the different branches of human knowledge and endeavor, into which a study of this subject inevitably leads: engineering and architecture of course with most of their recognized branches, but also medicine (anthropometry and optics), psychology (actions of crowds), astronomy (orientation), agriculture (seeds and turfs), and so on.

I have talked before informally and written articles on this subject, but always on some restricted part of it: ancient stadia, modern stadia, orientation, combination arenas, conservation of space, seat design, sight line theories, structural materials, structural design—never on the great big subject as a whole. Yet the very broadness of the subject has its advantages. It is obviously impossible to cover it all in one evening, so I have the privilege of restricting it as I please, and this means that I must ask your indulgence if I omit some phases of the subject which some of you may be expecting to hear.

Even if I should restrict this paper to the consideration of modern stadia only, it is yet advisable to make some reference at least to their ancient predecessors, which have had so large an influence, for good or for evil, on the design of most of them.

In considering these ancient predecessors, we must include not only the

Greek structures to which the name stadium was first applied, but also the amphitheatres, the hippodromes and circuses and, during later periods, the bull rings. In examining these ancient structures, it is rather astonishing how few important differences are found in the fundamental features of their design. There are comparatively few types and all the structures of the same type have great similarity. The differences between the types are due primarily to differences in the purposes for which they were used, and this is to my mind the greatest and the chief lesson which these structures should bring to the modern designer. Every designer must and can learn from the examples of the past, but this does not mean that he should follow ancient precedent blindly in adaptation to modern conditions. New modern purposes necessarily produce new conditions and the principal rule which precedent here teaches us is that differences in purpose require differences in design.

First and foremost is the so-called Greek stadium, perhaps best exemplified by the Pan-athenaic stadium at Athens, shown in illustration 1. Originally laid out about 330 B. C., it has recently been completely restored through the benefactions of an Alexandrian citizen, M. Averhof. This is a U-shaped structure of Penetellic marble with semicircular end or *οφειλόνα* enclosing a long narrow arena and has a capacity of about 50,000 spectators. The principal purpose of this and similar ancient structures was to provide seats for spectators while viewing foot races.

To this type of structure we can probably find the closest modern analogy of purpose in the modern track stadium. But the method of running the Greek races, and consequently the size and shape of the arena required were totally different. For a distance race the Greek runner would run back and forth between measured points repeatedly until he covered the required distance, whereas the modern runner races around a closed track the requisite number of laps. This structure, eminently well adapted for the Panathenaic games for which it was used, could not possibly be used for most modern contests, as its arena has not the requisite shape or size. Its general plan, however, with different proportions, has been duplicated again and again in the design of modern structures primarily intended for other purposes.

This stadium is the best example of its type probably only because of its complete restoration; remains of others, quite similar in plan may be found in Asia Minor (Laodicea), at Olympia, and at Ephesus—the last named had a capacity estimated as high as 76,000.

The next general type to be considered is the Roman circus. There are no very complete remains of any structures of this type now in existence perhaps because they were usually built largely of wood. Yet because the chariot races for which they were used formed an interesting subject for pictures and paintings, these structures are perhaps more familiar than some of the others. The most important structures of this type were

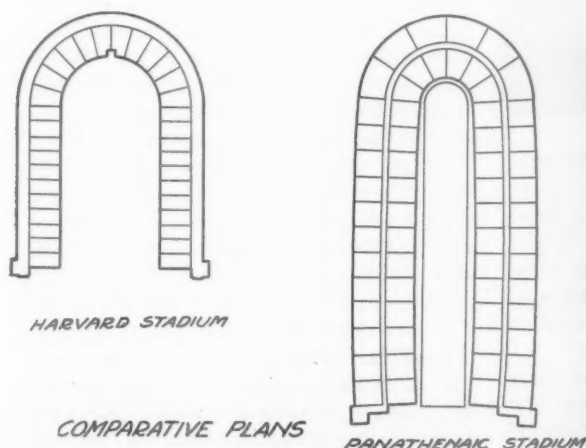


Illustration 1

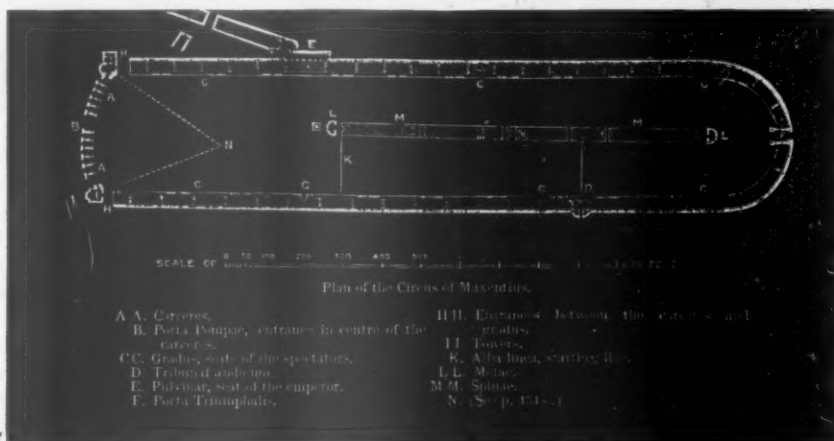


Illustration 2

all built in Rome, and the largest was the Circus Maximus, the capacity of which reached a figure estimated as high as 300,000 spectators—none of these however, were paid admissions. Others were the Circus Flaminius, the Circus Neronis, and the Circus Macentius, shown in Illustration 2. In plan the circus was usually built with arena and seats in the form of a long U, somewhat similar to the Greek Stadium. The straight end was closed with a wall and here were placed the carceres or stalls for the horses. A low wall, the spina, was located close to the center line of the arena to divide the first course from the return. It is obvious that here also the uses of the structure had an important influence on its design. We find a high wall around the arena for the protection of spectators, and in one case at least a moat was also constructed between the seats and the course. It is interesting to note that the central wall is not parallel to the



Illustration 3—The Colosseum (Exterior)

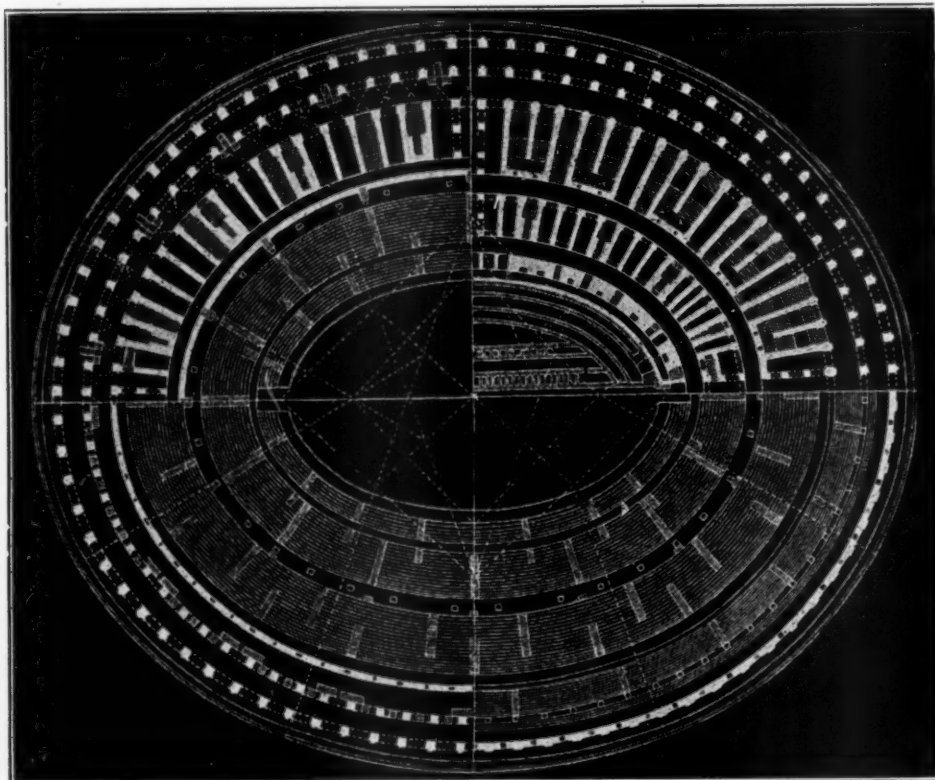


Illustration 4—Colosseum Plan



Illustration 5—Cross Section

axis of the arena, presumably to provide a wider course for the start where all the chariots must be lined up alongside each other, than for the finish. The circus was for a time used for staging gladiatorial and wild beast shows but was soon superseded by the Amphitheatre.

Of the Amphitheatre type, the most noteworthy example is of course the Colosseum in Rome. The erection of the Colosseum was commenced by Vespasian about A. D. 72 and the nearly completed structure was inau-

gurated by Titus in A. D. 80 by a tremendous show during which thousands of beasts were killed and a big sea fight was staged. The structure has an approximately elliptical plan, about 620 ft. on the major axis. The maximum height of the outer wall was about 160 ft. and the seating capacity was about 45,000. The arrangements for seating and controlling the spectators compare very favorably with modern methods. The arena of the Colosseum is not nearly large enough for a football field, nor is its shape in any way suited for the rectangular playing field of the modern game. The ellipse, however, has been adopted in whole or in part for the plan of a number of our modern football seating structures. The cross-section, the methods of control of spectators, and the appearance of the outside wall have also had great influence on their design. Illustration 7, on which are shown comparative plans at different scales of the Colosseum and of the Yale Bowl, shows how nearly identical are the proportions and how closely similar are the seating arrangements.

Other notable structures of the ancient Amphitheatre type may be found in varying states of preservation at Capua, Verona, shown in Illustration 8, and Pompeii in Italy, at Pola in Istria, at Nîmes and Arles in France, near Seville in Spain and at Thysdrus in Northern Africa. All of these are similar in composition: all oval or elliptical in plan, though varying in size and proportion. Even in exterior elevation great similarity is found in many cases. And the reason for this similarity is found in their

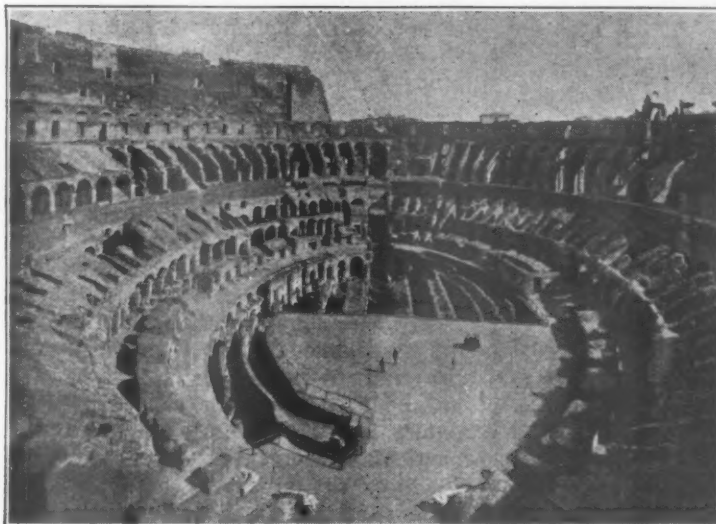


Illustration 6—The Colosseum (Interior)



Illustration 8—Verona Amphitheatre

similarity of purpose: the main uses of the Roman Amphitheatres were for gladiatorial shows and wild beast shows, and it has been recorded that the arena was occasionally flooded and used to stage sea fights or naumachia between triremes. Such shows could be given in an arena of practically any shape and as the action was not confined to any particular part of the arena, nor in any way fixed or restricted in direction, the oval or elliptical plan gave the most compact and logical form and allowed each seat a nearly equal chance of a good view. The necessity for protecting the spectators from the gladiators and the wild beasts, and for retaining the water used during the sea fights, accounts for the high wall surrounding the arena inside the seat tiers.

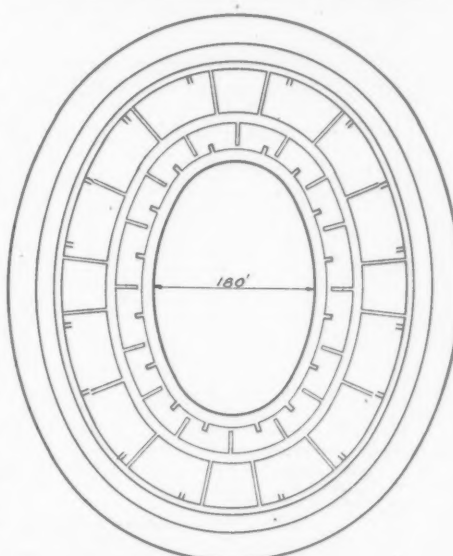
The decline of the glory of Rome caused the cessation of the exhibitions for which these ancient structures were erected. Stadium and Amphitheatre construction ceased altogether for many centuries and the only real link between the ancient and the modern structures is found in the Spanish bullring. This type of exhibition, which has survived in modern times, closely resembles the shows formerly witnessed in the Roman Amphitheatre. The field of action is not limited to any specific area or direction by artificial rules: therefore the oval or circular arena is well adapted for bull fights. Here again it is necessary to protect the spectators from the fight, therefore the high wall around the arena is logical and useful. Practically all bullrings are confined to Spanish countries. The introduction of bull-fighting in other countries has been attempted but without success on account of its fundamental cruelty. Every town of importance in almost every Spanish country has its Plaza

de Toros varying in size up to a capacity of about 15,000 or 20,000 in Mexico City.

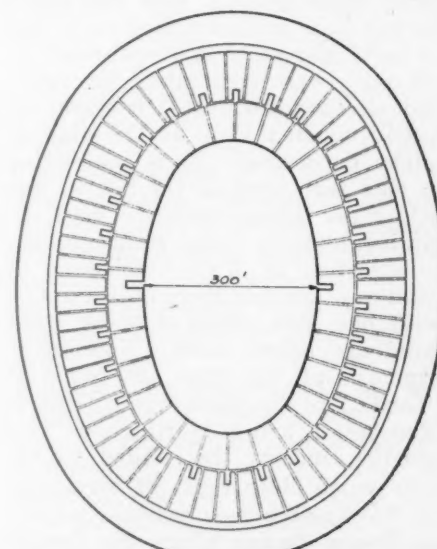
Modern Stadia

One cannot approach the subject of modern stadia without some examination of the modern definition of the word. Just as many a good word attains a period of gross misuse—we all know what has happened to the word "engineer"—so the word stadium has been rendered nearly useless for purposes of exact designation. We find the word stadium applied both formally and informally to every conceivable kind of athletic field, quite regardless of whether provision is made for spectators or not. For my part, I prefer to restrict my definition, for the purposes of this paper, to permanent outdoor seating structures with their arenas, intended primarily for viewing athletic contests and athletic

exhibitions. This will exclude all indoor seating structures, all outdoor theatres and movie houses, and all grandstands which are definitely of a temporary nature. But some doubt still remains: where can we draw a definite line between permanent and non-permanent structures? Some of these modern structures, intended to be permanent, have alas proved their impermanence all too soon. Again, what constitutes an athletic contest or exhibition? Shall we include fair grounds and race track and steeple chase grandstands, motor speedways, velodromes, boxing arenas, as well as stands for baseball, football, track games, tennis, cricket, soccer, polo, and so on? In view of the fact that the matter is in my hands I shall restrict myself in this matter to stadium structures primarily intended for the second class of activities listed



COLOSSEUM IN ROME



YALE BOWL

COMPARATIVE PLANS

Illustration 7

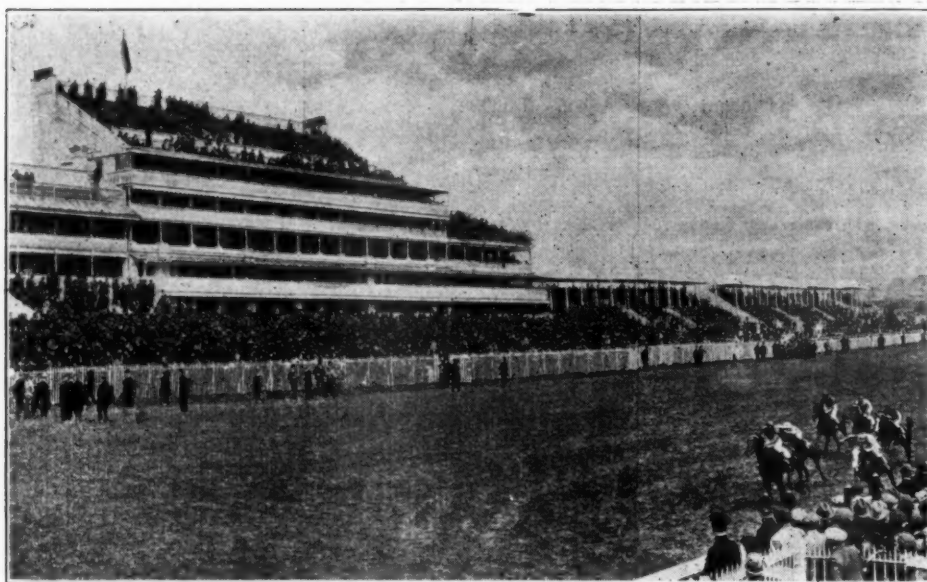


Illustration 9

Wide World Photo

above, eliminating with perhaps only occasional reference the structures which are used principally for horse racing and so on. Such restriction will then include chiefly the structures which have been erected by schools and colleges, municipalities, private clubs and professional baseball clubs. These are the structures most commonly referred to by the word stadium in an accurately restricted sense.

Chronologically, the earliest of these modern structures are probably to be found in the British Isles and in Australia, erected for viewing cricket, polo, and rugby and association football matches. These seating structures were until recent years of a temporary nature only, built of wood, and were never regarded as stadium structures. With a comparatively large playing field and small crowds to be accommodated there was no particular problem in seat location. All seats were necessarily far away, and all spectators could be given as nearly equal a view of the play as might be desired. It is interesting to note that some of the cricket and polo clubs incorporated the most desirable seats in their stands in the construction of their clubhouses or pavilions, locating them on the roofs, with one, two, three or more story buildings below them. Noteworthy examples of this kind are found at "Lord's," at the Kennington Oval, at Manchester, and at Hurlingham. This practice follows that found in the very much older types of structures at the English race courses, notably at Epsom Downs where the famous Derby has been run since 1780. In picture No. 9, which shows the principal grandstand at Epsom, note the small stands built on porches or

piazas covering the whole side of the building—six decks or levels in all. This is probably the greatest multiplicity of decks anywhere to be found. Most of these structures consist primarily of enclosed buildings, with seats as a secondary matter erected on them, whereas most of the more modern structures are just the reverse; primarily seating structures, with interior rooms or buildings for other purposes constructed under the seats as a secondary matter.

Before proceeding with the consideration of the stadium structures which are next in chronological order, let us examine the various games for which they are intended—the purposes which should govern their design. A few years ago I made a study of the various popular outdoor sports

with reference to the relative amount of space they demand. Diagram No. 10 shows some of the results of this study. You will note that the field plans of six of the principal outdoor sports are here shown, all drawn to the same scale; football, baseball, track and field, tennis, polo, and golf. The golf course is represented really diagrammatically, by the outside rectangle enclosing to scale an area of eighty acres. For each game a figure is given to show the number of players accommodated per acre, thus bringing out the relative extravagance or economy in space of these games, but these figures are not of particular interest here.

This diagram serves to show the wide variation in size and shape of the arenas required for the various games, and each one of these games except golf has already been the primary cause for the construction of seating structures of considerable size. Even the game of golf is likely soon to bring about the construction of special facilities for spectators, as the limit in the number of people who can satisfactorily watch an important match under present conditions was reached long ago. The late Mr. Walter Camp was much interested in the possibility of relieving golf clubs of the difficulties, annoyances, and expenses of championship tournaments. He advocated the construction of special courses built primarily for these tournaments and there are various ways in which the special conditions imposed in viewing the game can be fulfilled. It would be indeed a reduction to absurdity to erect a typical Greek stadium or Roman Amphitheatre for viewing a golf match, yet this would be only a

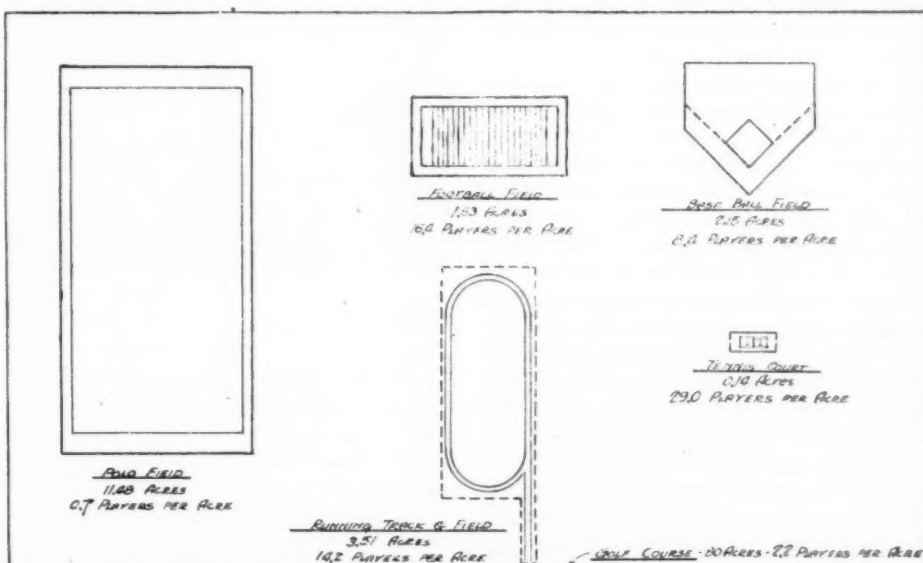


DIAGRAM SHOWING RELATIVE AMOUNT OF LAND
REQUIRED FOR VARIOUS POPULAR OUTDOOR ATHLETIC SPORTS

Illustration 10

GAVIN HADDEN
CIVIL ENGINEER

great exaggeration of some of the things which have been done.

The playing of outdoor sports is one of the few activities in which intensive development of land by building upward in a vertical direction is impossible. Such upward development is possible in seating structures, but for playing the games themselves the single ground surface must suffice.

Considerations of ground economy are, however, always important and other methods of increasing the utility of a specific playing surface have been frequently adopted and are coming more and more into use. The most important of these methods is the combination of different games on the same playing surface.

Many stadia have been erected for the purpose of viewing one type of game only. The most frequent and familiar structures of this type and probably the earliest of importance in this country are the baseball stadia. The professional baseball parks are in use for baseball so continuously that it is logical to plan them for this game only, without any compromise whatever with other purposes. The shape and size of the playing field required for baseball is totally different from the shape and size of the arena in any of the ancient stadia or amphitheatres, and the general design of these structures departed at the outset from all ancient precedent in so far as their plan was concerned, thus saving a lot of trouble and tending early to attain in plan a most efficient and useful form.

The first principles of stadium design include in simplest terms the determination of the exact size and shape of playing arena demanded by the exhibition which is to be viewed, and the location of the seats as most desired by the spectators who will view this exhibition. These are self-evident fundamental considerations, influenced of course but never counteracted by other considerations: economy, available land, land values, orientation, comfort, safety, likelihood of changes in playing rules or conditions and so on.

Just as the most desirable seats at the Derby race in England are those located at and near the finish line so there are certain locations most desired by baseball spectators. Observations on crowds entering baseball stands without reserved seats have shown that the locations most generally desired are those as close as possible to the infield foul lines. Other conditions being equal there is some preference for seats along the first base line, next for those behind home plate and next for those along the

third base line, the distance from the infield diamond being always an important consideration. Of course other conditions are never equal, and the spectators' choice is necessarily influenced also by considerations of price, comforts furnished, accessibility, roof protection, direction of the sun, location of columns and so on. The most generally undesirable seats of all in a baseball stadium are those from which some part of the view of the infield diamond is obstructed by a column. In the usual case, however, the relative number of seats thus seriously obstructed is not great, and the added comfort to the spectators of protection from the sun is usually sufficient in an important baseball structure to outweigh this disadvantage.

The greatest development of the modern professional baseball stadium is probably best exemplified at the present time by the Yankee Stadium in New York. Illustrations 11 and 12. This structure with its three seating decks and its ultimate seating capacity of about 90,000 spectators, will probably be the largest structure of

this kind for several years to come.

This plan of the Yankee Stadium shows what a large proportion of the site will ultimately be devoted to seats, and how skillfully the design has been adapted to the irregular boundaries of its site. It also shows comparatively, what a small proportion will ultimately be devoted to the playing of the game. Note the usual V-shaped plan behind the home plate, and how ill-suited a structure of this kind is for viewing football games.

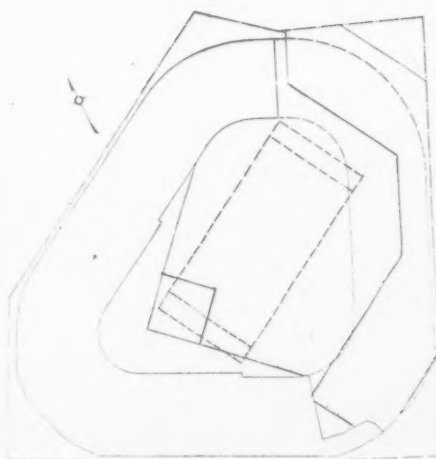
Contrast with this plan the next picture (Illustration 13), which shows in plan in the upper part of the right hand side a small baseball stand recently erected for Brown University in Providence, dedicated last week at the game between Brown and Dartmouth. The contrast in emphasis here is quite striking, and shows clearly the greater importance of playing area and the lesser importance of seating area for the college games. This baseball stand and its varsity diamond are located in one corner of a fifteen acre field, the whole of which has been designed for outdoor sports, with the stadium for varsity football and track to be located on an adjoining site. The football track Amphitheatre shown here is a preliminary design—both the site and the plan have been changed somewhat since this drawing was made. The relative areas devoted to play and to seats shown on this plan may not be regarded as in any way unusual for modern colleges and universities. Outside the large cities we may find numbers of institutions with upwards of fifty or sixty acres of ground used exclusively for athletics.

This perspective drawing, Illustration 14, shows the design of this baseball stand complete with roof. This roof has not yet been erected, but provision has been made for it.

In connection with roofs of this kind it is worthy of notice that the complete elimination of the forward lines of columns in a structure of about this size (the stand is twenty-five rows deep) is possible. It has not yet, however, been considered justified for any such structures in this country, on account of the very considerable increase in cost which it would involve. In France, where building laws and practices are perhaps somewhat bolder than in this country, examples of such completely cantilevered roofs may be found, notably in some of the recently constructed race track grandstands. One of these at Vincennes, has cantilevers about fifty-six and a half feet long. The type of design of these roofs is interesting, the roof trusses being tied rigidly to the deck, somewhat sim-



Illustration 11



YANKEE STADIUM, NEW YORK - PLAN

Illustration 12

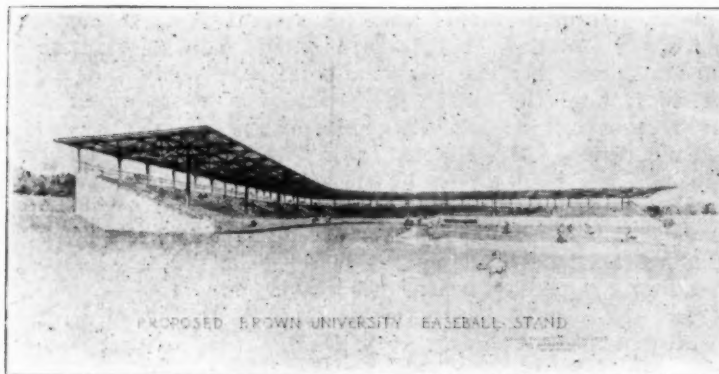


Illustration 14

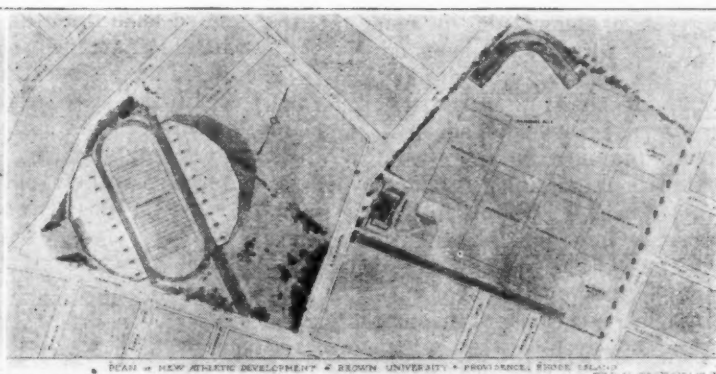


Illustration 13

ilar, perhaps, to the jaws of a power punch.

Illustration 15 shows the Brown structure as so far completed.

Another type of single sport stadium now becoming more and more familiar is the Tennis Stadium. For viewing the game of tennis the seat locations most generally favored by spectators are those at the ends of the court rather than at the sides or the corners. Spectators instinctively follow with their eyes the course of the ball in its flight, and as this course is usually very rapid with a sudden complete change in direction with each stroke, a perpendicular view from the side of the court is apt to be wearying, with considerable strain on the eyes, and neck. A parallel view from the end of the court, on the other hand, shows the entire field of play within a comparatively small field of vision. The frequent change of court by the players, required by the rules of the game, gives added advantage to the end seats. Other conditions influencing the desirability of different locations are the direction of the sun—and the fact that the necessity for a uniform, still background behind the end lines of the court requires the first rows of seats there to be placed at some height above the ground. This also increases the value of these seats by giving them a more commanding view, but on the other hand may limit the number of rows which can there be erected without reaching excessive heights.

The first and most famous permanent tennis stadium is that at Wimbledon, England shown here in plan. (Illustration 16.) The main part of this stadium is entirely roofed over and the only uncovered portions are certain sections at the sides of the court. The erection of these sections—used for standing room as well as for seats—is entirely justified because the background here is of no great importance. This design, however, places more spectators at the

sides than at the more desirable ends of the court. The small size of the arena, with room for but one court, should be noted. The great wear and tear on the turf occasioned by the necessity of playing every important match on the same court is a very serious matter, but probably less serious in England than it would be in this country.

The orientation should also be noted. Correct orientation of the court is probably more important in tennis than in any other game.

The cross-section shown here (in Illustration 17) is typical of the side stands, showing the lower uncovered seats, the standing room, and the covered grandstand. These, together



Illustration 15

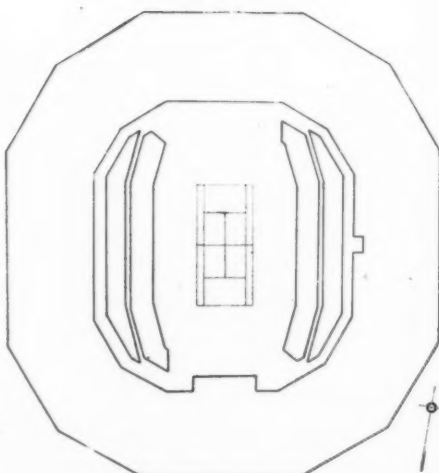


Illustration 16

with the royal box and the committee box which are located at one end, indicate a distinct difference between British and American habits in these matters. There has not yet been any appreciable demand for standing room at athletic contests in this country. The location of the roof columns as shown gives an idea of the number of seats obstructed. There are few seats back of the forward row of columns from which the view of some part of the playing area is not obstructed by at least one column. In this game, column obstruction is a more than usually serious disadvantage. On the other hand, this game, like professional baseball, is played on hot summer days, so that roof protection for the spectators is also of more than usual importance. The "Tea Room" shown here under the structure is another distinctly British touch. I have sometimes been confused by this drawing as our stadia usually have interior rooms called "Team Rooms."

The average length of view from the furthestmost seat in this structure is about 160 feet and the following delightful quotation from the designer's description may be of interest:

"It might be noted that forty or fifty yds. is ordinary shooting distance, at which it is easy to distinguish, even with rocketing pheasants and in a bad light, the difference between the cock and the hen bird, and rocketing pheasants coming down wind, or driven grouse or partridge move quite as quickly as any movement of the ball or player in Lawn Tennis."

The next important permanent tennis structure is the West Side Tennis Club Stadium in Forest Hills, Long Island, erected in 1923, shown here in plan. (Illustration 18.) The orientation here differs from that at Wimbledon, not only on account of its different latitude and longitude, and its different hours and different seasons of principal use, but also pre-

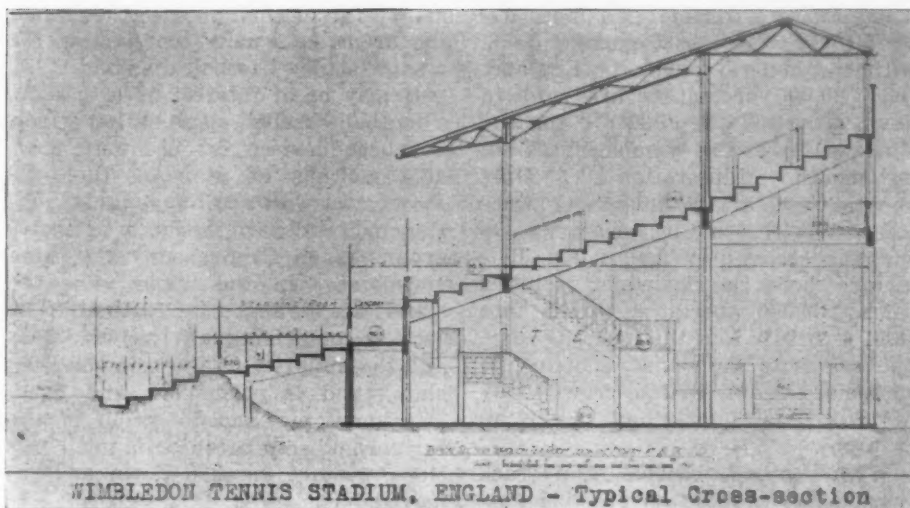


Illustration 17

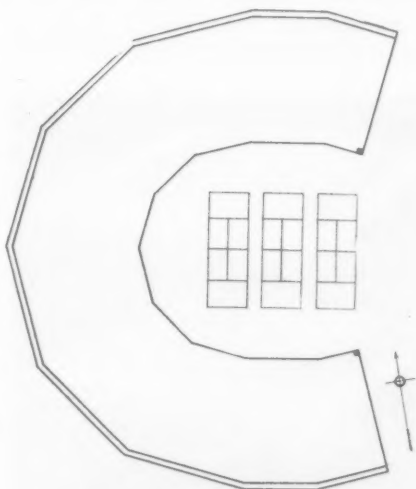
sumably on account of a quite different theory of application of the principles of orientation.

The arena here is considerably larger, allowing three courts to be included, two of which may be used simultaneously. This is of tremendous advantage in saving the turf, but increases the average distance from seat to field of play.

With the U-shaped plan there are more end seats than side line seats, it is true, but these are located at the ends of three courts instead of one.

The next two pictures (Illustrations 19 and 20) show typical views of the exterior side and of the arena side of this structure. The seat design here is worthy of notice: wood slat seats raised completely above the deck supported on cast iron brackets. This type of seat was first used after careful study and experiment in the Franklin Field Stadium in Philadelphia. The design has been further developed and improved for other structures since then. The govern-

ing principles of this type of seat design are the conservation of space and sitting comfort by the complete double utilization on two levels of the horizontal area allotted to each seat. As this space unit is multiplied by



WEST SIDE TENNIS CLUB STADIUM, FOREST HILLS, N. Y. - 1924

Illustration 18

thousands in each one of these structures, it may readily be appreciated that the seat design is a detail of vital importance.

Another possible single sport stadium is one for track and field. I say possible, because I doubt if any modern stadium of importance (excluding the reconstruction of the Panathenaic Stadium in Athens) has been erected for this purpose only. Probably the nearest approaches to it are the Olympic stadia which have of recent years been constructed in various foreign countries—at Stockholm, at Antwerp, and at Colombes. Historically at least, the track and field games are the most important Olympic events. The area enclosed by a standard running track is usually well suited in size and shape to form the playing field for other games. Therefore it is logical to use this arena for other games as well as for track and field. Illustration 21 shows a general view of the Olympic Stadium in Antwerp, the scene of the games in 1920.

For races and dashes the most desirable location for spectators is as a rule at the finish, and for field events a close view at almost any angle is desirable. A scattered distribution of the location of the various events within the arena is useful in distributing the view to large gatherings of spectators. As in the usual case the number of spectators desiring to view a track meet is far less than the number of seats provided for other games in the same structure, the problem of location is not often a serious one.

The Yale Bowl is probably the only permanent stadium of importance which has been erected solely for the game of football. While this structure has thoroughly justified itself economically, yet the conditions which



Illustration 19

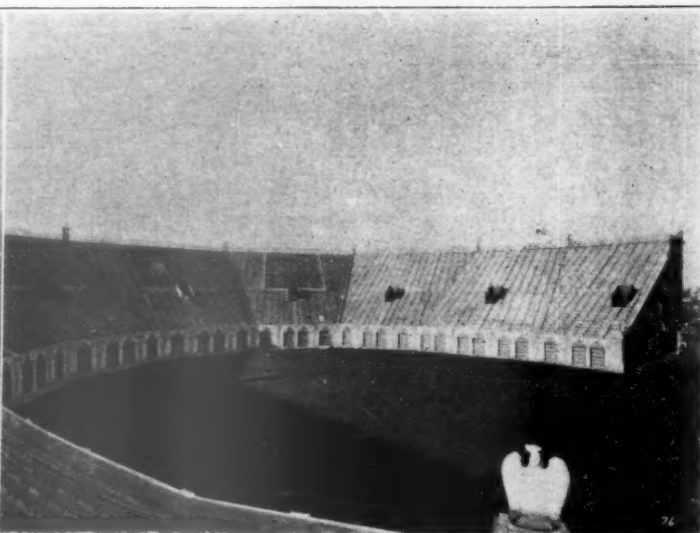


Illustration 20

result in such justification do not often occur, as in the usual case the structure is used only about twenty hours out of each year.

Therefore we find the game of football usually combined, within the same structure, with one or more other games. In the design of municipal stadia efforts are usually made to include the greatest possible number of different sports in the same arena. As these projects are always of a public character it is natural and logical that every justifiable effort should be made to enlist the interest of every citizen and to increase the usefulness of the structure to the general public in every way possible. For every additional activity definitely included, however, some compromise has usually been necessary, resulting in disadvantages in the playing or the viewing (or both) of one or more of the games. Where the principal use of the structure and the only one, as in many cases, which fills it to capacity, is the game of football, it is obviously justifiable to place the principal emphasis on this game and to reduce its disadvantages to negligibility.

If we omit consideration of the more or less exceptional uses, which can usually be included in some fashion or other in any structure without special provision in the design, such as band concerts, fetes, pageants, carnivals, mass meetings, song feasts, shows, military tournaments, and so forth, and if we omit likewise consideration of the minor games which draw comparatively few spectators in this country, the problem of combination is reduced to the consideration of the three principal outdoor major land sports: football, baseball and track. I say "in this country," because one of the sports

which is here considered minor, Association Football, is a popular game with the general public in England. Over 90,000 spectators are said to have witnessed the final tie for the English Cup at the Wembley Stadium last month. (Illustration 22.) Only about 35,000 of these however were provided with seats, the majority being standees as previously noted. This picture shows the riot which occurred when 200,000 spectators broke into this structure on the opening day, and serves to show that, contrary to customary belief, British crowds may be quite as unruly as American crowds.

With football, baseball and track there are of course four possible combination arenas, in addition to the three single sport arenas: football-baseball, football-track, baseball-track and football-baseball-track.

The football-baseball combination as usually made in professional baseball parks where the structure is primarily for baseball is not very satisfactory for football, as we have seen in the case of the Yankee Stadium. Where a structure is intended pri-

marily for football on the other hand, the arena is usually too narrow for a satisfactory baseball diamond.

It may be of interest here to show a football-baseball combination which has been devised for use with movable sections of stands. Illus. 23 shows two views of a roughly constructed cardboard model, both photographs taken from exactly the same viewpoint. In the upper view the stands are arranged for football. The section comprising all the end seats and the majority of those in the near side stand is permanent and fixed. The small pie-shaped section in the far corner is to be built in small sections, readily knocked down and removed. The three other separate sections are each movable as a unit, the two smaller each to be swung about a corner as a pivot and the largest one to be swung about a point in the center as a pivot. To make the change from football to baseball, the forty-five degree section is taken down, the three swinging sections are moved to new positions as shown in the lower view, and the pie-shaped section is reerected on the near side as shown.

The football-track combination is the most common and probably the most generally successful of all. A standard quarter mile running track can be located about a football gridiron without any disadvantage whatever to either of the sports. The seats can be designed with negligible prejudice to either sport. The field events can readily be located in the semicircles at the ends of the football field, so there is no problem of turf maintenance. The principle events of the two sports occur in different seasons of the year so that conflict in practice or in schedules can readily be avoided.

(To be continued in October)

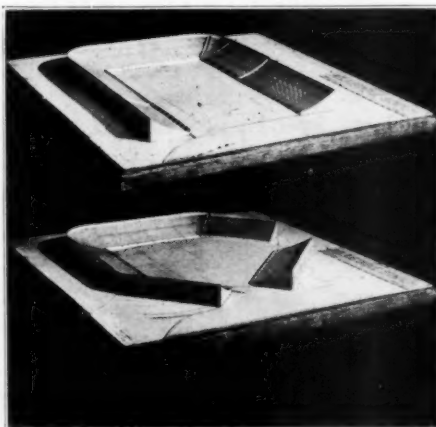


Illustration 23



Illustration 21



Wide World Photos

Illustration 22

A Pictorial Study of Fundamentals

By the middle of the season a coach will be rated according to the manner in which his players execute the fundamentals. If the runner carries the ball under the arm next to the opposing tackler, if the tackler grasps the opponent high on the latter's body, if the full-back is thrown back when he hits the line, if a half-back does not follow interference, if the offensive line men are straightened up or pulled forward by their opponents, the coach has failed to drill his men properly in fundamentals. So much has been said in recent years about the mastery of the technique of fundamentals, about relaxation, timing and concentration in athletics that one hesitates to refer

to any of these subjects. However, in spite of all that has been said and done many coaches still are trying to win championships by plays instead of by the technique of playing, by tricks that seldom work and by attempting to discover some secret method of winning success without paying the price. It may be that sometime some coach will discover some new method of making yardage on the football field, but the chances are that the old, tried and proven methods will never be entirely discarded. It is true that styles change with the seasons and with the development of the game, yet the principles of football today are very largely the same as those employed a quar-

ter of a century ago. To illustrate the point that styles change—some years ago men were taught always to leave their feet in blocking. Today a great many coaches teach their men to keep on their feet when running interference. There was a time when a football player would be put off the squad if he failed to fall on a loose ball. With the advent of the open game, players are more adept in handling the ball and most coaches today instruct their smart players to use their judgment whether to fall on the ball or to try to scoop it. In this connection, it is a good rule to fall on the ball when in doubt.



Illustration 1

Handling the Ball

Illustration number one shows the method of tucking the ball under the arm. Note that the hand is well spread over the lower point of the ball and the ball is held by the hand, forearm, upper arm and the body. With the ball held in this position it is easy to shift it from one arm to the other. The ball should be shifted with both hands and a great deal of practice should be given in holding the ball properly and in shifting it while running. After the men learn to hold and carry the ball properly, they will shift it automatically (see illustration two) so as to be able to use the stiff arm.



Illustration 2

Illustration three shows a half back from a loose formation circling his right end. Note that the runner is relaxed and he is using both arms to aid



Illustration 3

International Newsreel

him in getting the proper stride. The ball is held under the arm away from the tacklers and his left arm is free to be used in warding off defensive opponents.

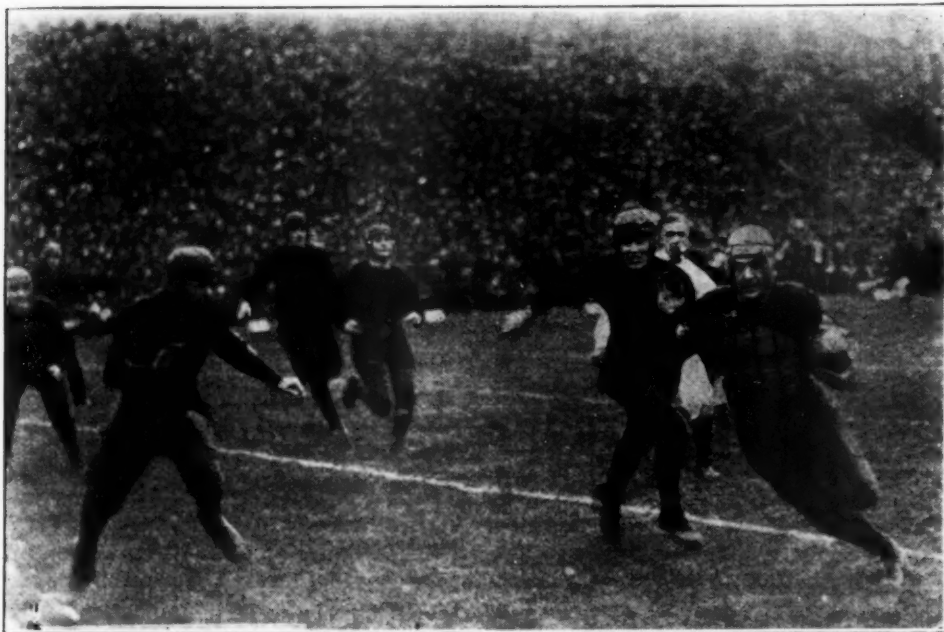


Illustration 4

U. & U.

Illustration five shows Grange in another characteristic position warding off a tackler and throwing himself in such a manner as to protect his legs while running with the ball.

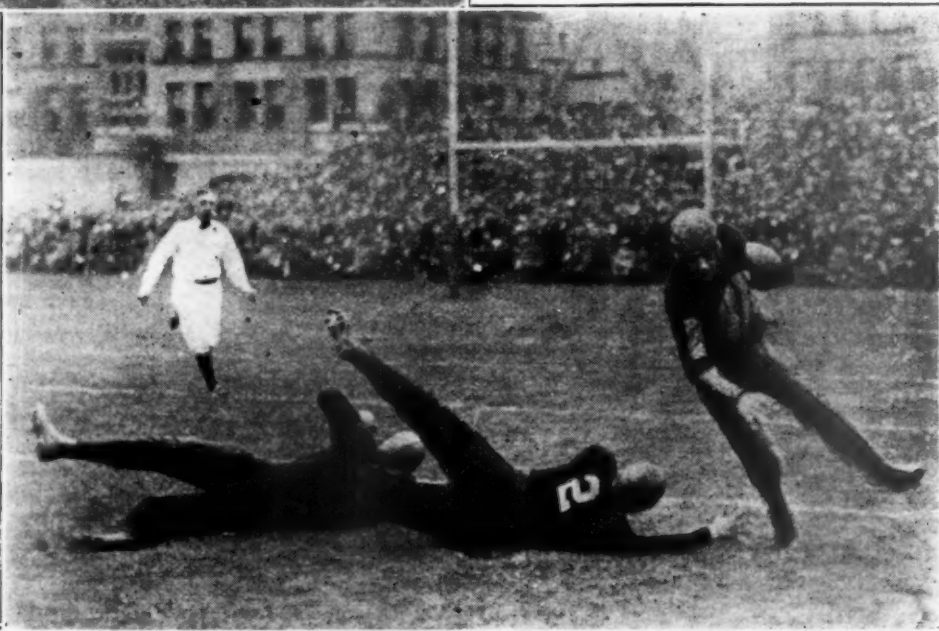


Illustration 5



Illustration 6

U. & U.

Illustration four is a picture taken of the Illinois-Chicago game last year, and it shows Grange carrying the ball. This is a splendid picture of the greatest back field runner of the year. Note the position of his body as he cuts back either to avoid running out of bounds or to execute the cut back play at which he is a past master.

Illustration six shows Clarence Schutte, the Minnesota half back, making a long run in the Illinois-Minnesota game last year. His fingers are well spread over the point of the ball which is held securely against his body. Of course, he has it on the right side and his left arm has been used in protecting himself against the Illinois tacklers.

Tackling

Illustration seven, taken in the Princeton-Notre Dame game in 1924 which was won by Notre Dame 25-2, shows Conley of Princeton carrying the ball. He is apparently shifting the ball under his left arm so as to have his right arm free for protective purposes. Attention is especially called to the



Illustration 7

U. & I.

position of the Notre Dame man on defense. Note that he is coming in preparatory to making his tackle in a crouched position with his legs well spread so as to enable him to turn quickly either way and with his arms wide preparatory to grasping the runner around the legs.

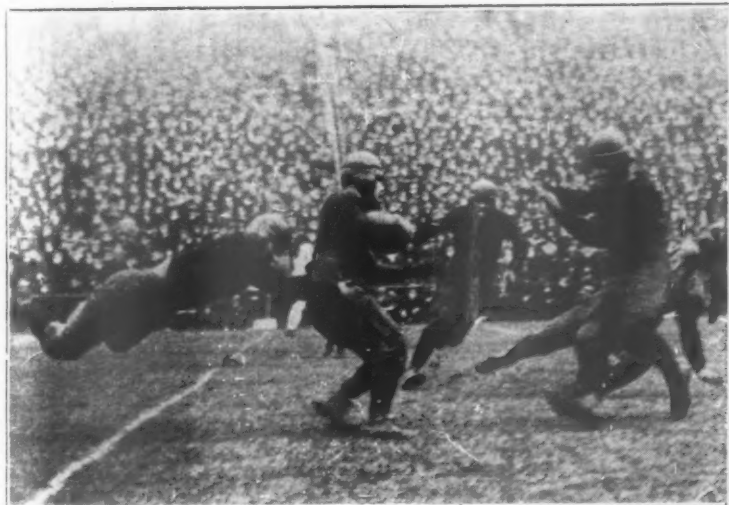


Illustration 8

International Newsreel

Illustration eight shows an unusual position of a man tackling from behind. The man on defense has left his feet in making the tackle. A great many tackles are made each year by men who leave their feet, as they lunge toward the runner.



Illustration 9

International Newsreel

Illustration nine shows both the runner and tackler with their feet off the ground. The tackler's head is in front of the runner and if he had missed holding the opponent, the chances are that he would have succeeded in cutting down the runner and thus stopping him.

Illustration ten shows a head-on tackle. Note that the tackler received the impact of the runner on his shoulder and that his arms are tightly grasped around the opponent's legs. One of the greatest



Illustration 10

faults in tackling is made by men who try to stop the runner by hitting them with their arms rather than their shoulders. Such a tackler is never successful in stopping elusive, side-stepping runners.

Punting

Illustration eleven shows the position of the full-back receiving the ball from center preparatory to punting. He is standing in such a position that he can step quickly so as to catch an imperfect pass and if the ball is easily handled he is ready to step forward as in illustration twelve. In this picture, note the manner in which the ball is held.



International Newsreel

Illustration 11



International Newsreel

Illustration 13

Football attack divides itself under four heads—running, bucking, passing and kicking. Some coaches may stress one of these and neglect the others but no coach ever won a championship without a good kicker. If the team's punter can also run and pass the coach will have a triple threat which is invaluable. A great many coaches believe that the punt formation is the best formation in football. Certainly it is one of the best and with a man back who can run, pass and kick, the team is assured of a good attack provided the other members of the team do their part.



International Newsreel

Illustration 12

Some coaches believe that a kicker should throw his arms as in Illustration thirteen and some others insist that more distance may be gained if he uses



Illustration 13a

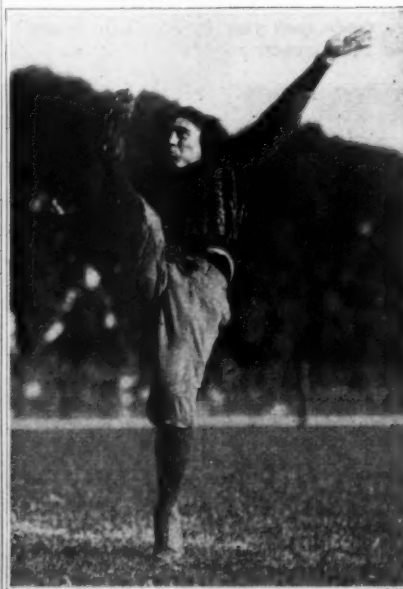


Illustration 13b

his arms in the one illustrated in 13-a. It is suggested that every kicker experiment until he finds the form best suited to himself.

Drop and Place Kicking

Illustration fourteen shows the position of the player receiving the ball preparatory to attempting a goal from the field. In illustration fifteen he is shown holding the ball preparatory to dropping it for a drop kick. Note the angle at which the ball is held. Illustration sixteen shows the position of the kicker after executing a drop kick. Note that his eyes are still on the ground. The successful drop kicker focuses his attention on the spot on the ball



Illustration 14

where he aims to plant his foot, rather than watching the goal posts. Illustration seventeen illustrates the fact that the man holding the ball for the place kick did not jerk his hands away when the ball was kicked. Further, it should be noted that the kicker's left foot was close to the spot on the ground where the ball was held. Many place kickers make the mistake of attempting to kick the ball when the foot on the ground is too far behind it.



Illustration 15



Illustration 16



Illustration 17

Every successful golf player has learned not only to keep his eye on the ball when he shoots but also to concentrate his attention on the matter of hitting a certain spot on the ball.



Illustration 18

Every successful place kicker must learn not only to keep his eye on the spot on the ball where he intends to plant his toe but also to devote his entire attention to executing his kick.

Close Formation Plays

All Successful Systems of Football Attack Include Close Formation Plays

By Frank G. McCormick

A GOOD coach is the one who can make a winning football team out of comparatively good material. The best coach in the world can not make a winning team out of men who have no athletic ability. Earl Sande could not ride a cart horse to victory in a Kentucky Derby. A winning football team is composed of men who are thoroughly versed in the fundamentals and can execute them. A team should win football games if its members can block, tackle and handle the ball, if the line men can take their opponents out of the play and if the team is possessed of good kicking. That is, no one should be fooled into believing that it is the play that wins but rather it is the way in which the play is executed that makes the play count.

A test of a good offense is whether or not it can gain ground in a scoring zone that is within forty yards of the opponent's goal. It is not difficult to gain ground in one's own territory or in the middle of the field, but the resistance increases as the team approaches its opponent's goal line and the winning team is the one that has punch enough to put the ball over. Experience shows that a close formation with a few basic plays well executed are necessary for football success.

Some teams use a shift while others start their plays from set formations. There are both advantages and disadvantages to be found in either system but it is my belief that it is well to use the shift. The purpose of the shift is that it enables the offense to concentrate its strength at a given point, presumably before the defense is able to shift to meet it. When the defense shifts to meet the attack, it may leave

a weak spot for the offense to hit. A good back driving off tackle can make the most distance if the play starts from a shift because the men on defense are usually moving the way the play develops, when the ball is snapped and thus the back has a splendid opportunity to cut back and to cross the line of scrimmage at an angle. It is impossible for the defense to stop this play, if it is well timed.

All shift plays of today are based on the principles developed by Dr. Williams in his Minnesota shift. I am a strong believer in the Minnesota shift because I have played against his teams when they were using it and have been coached in his shift by his

players. The secret of the success of the shift consists of having the shifting executed to perfection and timed perfectly according to the play. It is not well to use the same rhythm on every play, because if that is done, the defense will start charging the same each time. Of course, the object of the offense is to harass the defense with a ground gaining play off tackle, a slashing attack through the line and flank attacks based on passes, criss-crosses, delayed bucks and trick plays.

Illustration one shows the position of players when they line up before the shift. The two guards are brought back leaving only an opening between center and tackle wide enough for one man so that the defense will not have any men to guide them in taking a defensive position. A yard or two is left between the end and the tackle as this tends to spread the defense. The tackles shift out the width of one man when the shift is made, thus allowing the two guards to fit into the line between the center and tackle.

When the shift is made, as shown in illustrations two and three, the quarterback may either take a position back of the center from which he can handle the ball or he may shift to the side so as to permit of a direct pass from center. The end on the strong side should be one to one and a half yards from the tackle and on the weak side not over a yard. The half-back should take the position just outside of his end and on the strong side. This formation tends to spread out the defense in the center and gives the end and half-back good positions from which to block the tackle opposing them. The rear back should be from four and a half to five yards back from the center.

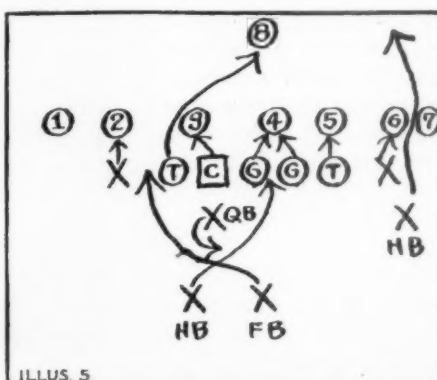
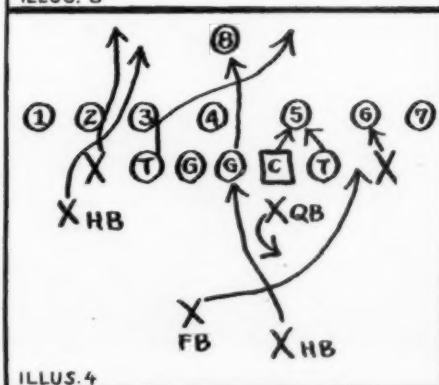
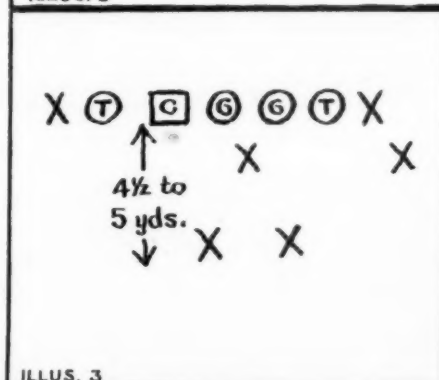
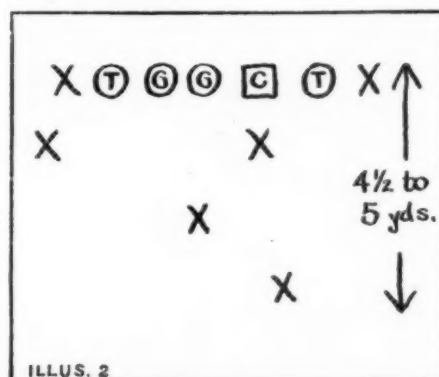
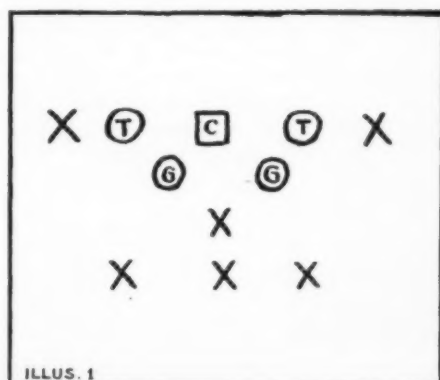
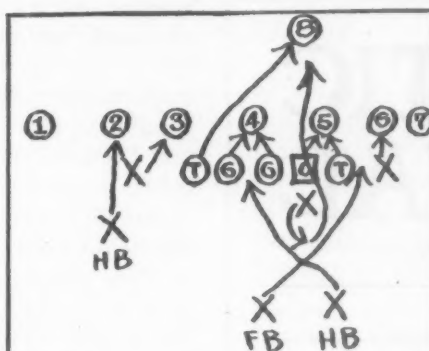


Illustration four shows how the split buck, in which the full-back carries the ball, may be executed. In this, the team shifts to the left and the quarter back handles the ball from center. He gives the ball to the full-back going off the weak side and takes the ball to the half-back who delays and splits into the line. The success of this play depends upon having a quarter-back who is clever enough to handle the ball so that the defense can not tell who is receiving it. Both the half-back and the full-back should go into the line with all the speed and drive that they possess and further should fake the play. This is not a strong play if the defensive men are in the right position, but if their tackle on the weak side either shifts in too far or does not come in far enough this play will gain ground. Note that the full-back crosses in front of the half-back and hits the line first. Of course, this play and all others may be used on both sides.

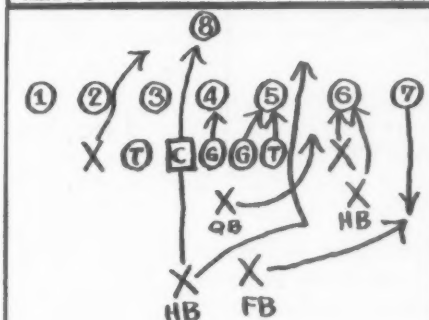
Illustration five shows how another play may be executed in a manner, similar to that in which the other play was made. In this the quarter-back receives the ball and the full-back starts into the line first faking to receive the ball. The half-back delays and then splits into the line after receiving the ball from the quarter-back. This is a better ground gaining play than the other one and if the backs work it out properly, it is almost impossible for the defensive men back of the line to tell who is going to carry the ball. This is an especially good play to work, when the defensive full-back is nervous or high strung and has a tendency to start in too quickly.

The split buck in which the full-back starts first followed by a quarter-back buck is outlined in illustration six. This is another of the same series of plays to which the other two belong. It can not be used very often but it is often effective as a goal line play after the other two have been used a good deal, especially if they have been gaining ground. In this play, the quarter-back receives the ball from center, turns and fakes to pass it to the full-back who goes through the weak side, fakes it to the half-back who has delayed and who splits into the strong side over the guards and then pivots and carries the ball through center himself.

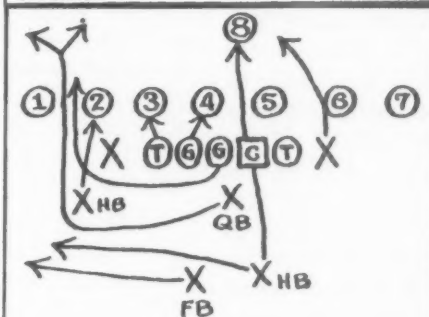
Illustration seven pictures an off tackle play. In this, the center passes the ball direct to the half-back. The other half-back who is out on the strong side takes the opposing tackle together with the end. The tackle and guard on the strong side block the defensive guard and the center cuts



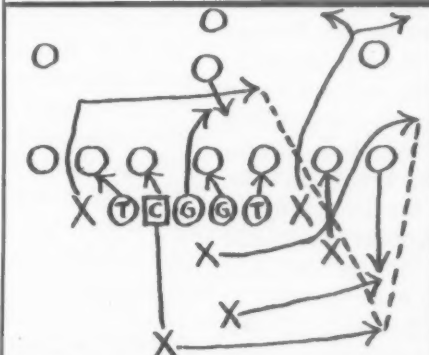
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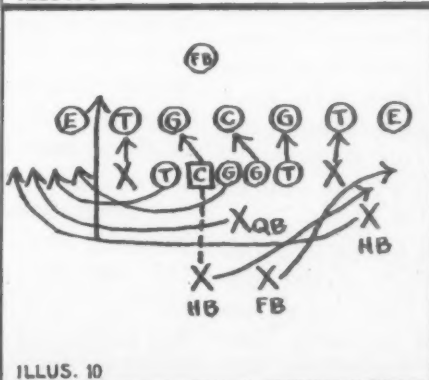
ILLUS. 7.



ILLUS. 8.



ILLUS. 9.



ILLUS. 10.

through for the defensive full-back who is backing up the line. The full-back blocks the end out and the quarter-back runs personal interference for the ball carrier and picks the hole and leads the way for him to follow. The team that cannot gain ground on this play can hardly expect to win football games. It requires lots of drive and good blocking on the part of all the members of the offensive team.

Illustration eight pictures the manner in which an end run may be made from a shift formation. In this play the ball is passed direct to the rear-back, the quarter-back and the full-back block the end. The guard closest to center comes out behind his own line and runs personal interference for the man carrying the ball. The end and the half-back out on the strong side take the opposing end and the center goes through to block off the defensive full-back.

Illustration nine—the optional running or passing play. In an optional passing or running play the ball carrier plays the defensive full-back. If the defensive full-back stays back to break up a pass the man with the ball should run with it. However, if the man on defense comes in to stop a run, then a pass should work. In this play the rear half-back gets the ball direct from the center and starts for an end run. The end on the strong side goes down the field as far as possible and then turns either in or out. The outside half blocks the tackle and the full-back blocks the end. The quarter-back starts out as though he was going to block the end but instead slips by and comes out into the open space to the right. The end on the weak side delays and then cuts over behind the defensive line. The pass, if made, should be well timed and the ball should go to either of the ends or the quarter-back as soon as one is free.

In the next play—the one shown in illustration ten, the ball is passed by the center to the rear-back and the play starts toward the right. The half-back on the strong side starts back as soon as the ball is snapped, goes behind the rear half-back, takes the ball from him and then runs around the left end. The full-back blocks the defensive end while the quarter-back, the guard on the strong side and the tackle on the weak side will delay for about three seconds and then swing out and form an interference around the weak side.

Other plays might be included, of course, such as a direct pass to the full-back on a line buck through the weak side and the forward pass, which might be made from the play last illustrated.

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Team Games

FIVE or six hundred thousand school and college men will put on football suits, report to their coaches and start training for the football team this month. The candidates for these teams will come from all walks of life. They will represent almost all known religions and a great many different races. The coach, however, will not insist that as a prerequisite for membership on the team that any boy shall qualify as regards his family standing in the social register of the community, he will not require that all of his men subscribe to any religious faith, nor will he reject those who may not be able to boast that they are of Nordic descent. A football team is democratic to the extreme. If a boy can pass his eligibility requirements, convince the coach that he is a good football player and that he can fit in with the other members of the team, he will win a place on the eleven.

The men who will win their letters on their school or college teams this fall will have to be good team men. That is, each will of necessity have to learn to play the game as a member of a machine and not as an individual alone. In a foreign university where the students come from a great many different countries in Europe and Asia, the captain of a soccer team once suggested that his greatest difficulty lay in trying to get the boys who came from countries where athletic sports are but little known to pass the ball to the other men. He suggested that the tendency was for each to try to dribble the ball unaided down the field. Diplomats are suggesting today that we need more than anything else to learn to play the game as members of a team rather than as individuals. Football is pre-eminently a team game, and men who are in a position to know, make the claim that the boys who have learned to play the game as members of a team on the football fields, after graduation as a rule go on playing the game as citizens, working with their fellows and subjugating self for the good of the group.

The men who play on the football teams this fall will almost universally respect the ethics of the contest. They will strive to the limit of their capacities to bring victory to their teams but at the same time they will recognize the rights of their opponents, will

respect the decisions of the officials and will have an altruistic outlook on life even though their teams may lose. The conduct of the players in the games is of importance both because the manner in which the men behave in the contests affects the players themselves and because the ethical standards exemplified by the teams influence tremendously millions of spectators. It has been said that, "Our athletics provide the highest social code of the age." Who shall deny that this is true, and it being true, we can look forward to the coming football season with satisfaction as we realize the deeper significance of athletics and appreciate the fact that American football, as it will be played this fall, is a glorious institution of untold value in improving American citizenship.

The Value of Different Activities

IT is not strange that frequently men who have devoted their lives to research in certain fields or to teaching certain subjects feel that other courses and subjects in the educational program are not so important as theirs. This explains in part the reason why college professors sometimes denounce intercollegiate athletics. The writer has heard science professors suggest that the students who study the classics wasted their time and he recalls that not many years ago the leading professors in the classical colleges looked askance at the growth in popularity of science. Athletic men, on the other hand, frequently overstate their cases and out of their enthusiasm for their own work make claims which cannot be substantiated.

Probably the dispute regarding the relative values of different departments and activities in the schools and colleges will continue indefinitely just as the argument in the Army as to whether the infantry is more important than the artillery or the artillery than the air service and so on. The General Staff recognizes the fact that all the arms of the service are important and necessary and the general public believes that most of the courses including physical education and athletics have a place in the field of education. On the whole, it undoubtedly denotes a healthy condition when exponents of this or that activity are fighting for their own courses. If a man believes that his subject or course is the best one in the catalog, he will probably teach more enthusiastically than if he does not believe in his own work. Further, the discussion regarding the value and objectives of education and the different departments, subjects and courses in college will probably result in a better understanding regarding the objectives. One who has read the numerous commencement day addresses delivered by educators cannot fail being impressed that hardly two of these men seem agreed as regards the purpose of the college. In the meantime while the battle wages, our interscholastic and intercollegiate departments of physical education are making headway. These are the only departments that are in any way self-sustaining financially, and due to the fact that the public has supported athletics rather munificently, the great building development of the last few years has been

made possible. Since the war, physical educators have been going about the task of correcting the conditions that existed, according to the draft statistics, by providing more and better physical education and health courses for all of the members of the student bodies who will participate in these courses. Some universities have gone further and have made the work compulsory for the four undergraduate years. Intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics are today on a higher plane ethically than ever before. In fact, the sportsman's code as upheld in the educational institutions is a better code for social conduct than that which governs almost any other of our human relationships.

Are Amateur Athletics for the Favored Few?

ONLY rich men's sons can excel in amateur athletics and be bona fide amateurs is the claim that is sometimes made by sports writers. This claim can hardly be substantiated by the facts as they pertain to modern college athletics. Of the sixty-four men who won a letter in one of the four major sports at the University of Illinois last year, sixteen are earning their entire way through school and many of the others are earning part of their expenses while attending the University. One of the most famous athletes and captain of one of the teams at Illinois paid his way through school by selling bread and soliciting orders for a laundry; another sold groceries to the fraternity and sorority houses; another helped the women of Champaign and Urbana with their house cleaning work, at which he made such a good reputation that this last year he kept a waiting list of persons who wanted him to work for them; another well known athlete at Illinois made up and sold sandwiches around the fraternity houses late in the evening and thus earned his entire way through school.

A study of a list of occupations of the fathers of the men who won their letters at Illinois last year shows that there were two tailors, three carpenters, eleven farmers, one assistant postmaster, one sheriff; the list also contained newspaper editor, chauffeur, barber, teacher, engineer, machinist, baker, banker, grocer, foreman, attorney, doctor, book dealer, electrician, plumber and superintendent. No attempt has been made to ascertain the wealth of the homes from which these men came but it probably may be assumed without much fear of mistake that very few of these sixty-four athletes are permitted to live lives of idleness and luxury. Perhaps that is one reason why they have been successful in winning letters in major sports in a great university.

Z. G. Clevenger, Director of Athletics at Indiana University, finds that some thirty of his Indiana lettermen are earning their way through school entirely or at least in part. Among the athletes who are working their way through school is the captain-elect for next fall. The football captains for '23 and '24 both earned their way through Indiana. The captain of the 1925 baseball team, the captain of the 1925 basketball team, the captain of the 1924 cross country team and the captain of the 1925 wrestling team are among

those who have earned their way through college at Indiana.

A study of conditions in the schools and colleges of America would show that a large percentage of the athletes are working for their education. This is of interest for two reasons—first, it refutes the argument that only boys of wealthy parents can excel in athletics in this country, and further, it shows that the athletes as a class are not hired to play on their respective teams.

What Is Wrong Here?

A MODERN university is maintained to serve the public. It invites the general public to make use of the advantages offered by the university, but it imposes certain restrictions. For instance, only persons who have passed certain educational requirements are permitted to enroll for some of the university courses, while they are accepted for other courses (such as the winter short courses) with practically no restrictive qualifications. The university conducts stock shows, flower exhibitions, lectures, musicales, theatricals, debates, oratorical contests and athletic games. Some of these are free to all who may care to attend, others are open to all who may be willing to pay a small admission fee, and others are only for invited guests. The public, however, is encouraged to attend most of the university activities. The public in the past has evidenced more interest in university athletics than in some of the other activities maintained and controlled by the university for the public. For this, the universities are frequently blamed and sometimes athletics are condemned. If the public should not manifest more interest in football than in the lecture course, but it persists in doing so, shall we blame the university, football or the public?

The students, alumni and the public are more interested in football than in the work of some of the other departments of the university. This being true, it must be because the university has appropriated more money for football than for the other departments, and in supporting the athletic department has neglected the other departments of the university. This is the thought in the minds of a great many people who are worried because athletics have more of a public appeal than some of the other university functions. Of course, it might be suggested that in most of our colleges and universities football is not only self-supporting but it further pays the bill for most of the physical education activities. This being the case, it is not true then that the libraries and laboratories are made to suffer because of the inroads that athletics make on the tax budget. Furthermore, it has never been proven that if intercollegiate football were abolished the students would be more enthusiastic in their pursuit of knowledge or more interested in art and science. DuBuque University has abolished intercollegiate football. If those who maintain that scholasticism suffers because of athleticism, we may expect to see DuBuque University graduate large numbers of intellectual giants, poets and philosophers.

One Idea of Football

The Old Conservative Idea of Football Places the Emphasis on a Good Defense

UNTIL a few years ago there was a more or less universal agreement among the coaches of the country regarding strategy and tactics of football. It is true that there were different schools of football, so to speak, but the ideas that predominated in these centers were fundamentally the same. Today we have two rather distinct conceptions of football offense. The one in which the offense bases its attack upon the theory that the plays will be planned largely irrespective of the defense. Of course, the defense is not ignored and it will be suggested by some that the quarterback who calls his signals properly will keep in mind the places where the defensive men have been playing and will assume that they will do certain things in case certain plays are used against them. Further, where this brand of football is being played there is a gradual breaking away from the old conservative idea of attack, where percentages are figured in calling the plays and where it is almost always possible to predict with some degree of accuracy just what kind of a play will be used at any given place on the field.

This article is written not with the idea of suggesting the points of superiority in either conception of football but rather to give the writer's idea of the theory of football commonly held by those strategists who are the football conservatives—men who still consider the points of strength and weakness in the defense largely in calling plays. By strategy, of course, we mean the general plan of defense and offense. All strategy of football depends upon the weather, the condition of the field, the opponent's plans, the condition of the team and the period in the season. Tactics have to do with the plays that are employed by the strategists.

Zone System

This style of football holds very closely to the zone system. The first zone is from the team's own goal to the twenty-five yard line, the second zone from the twenty-five yard line to the center of the field, the third from the center of the field to the opponent's twenty-five yard line and the fourth from the opponent's twenty-five yard line to the opponent's goal. According to conservative football

when the team is in zone number one, the quarterback should always punt on first or second down. Sometimes a wide run is attempted from a punt formation. The line plays safe in this zone and protects the kicker on the theory that if the ball is fumbled and lost to the opponents in this territory the opposition has a good chance to score. Of course, there are conditions under which these rules would be varied, for instance, if a strong wind is blowing against the team or if the team is playing safe in trying to retain possession of the ball.

In zone two, the quarterback uses plays to try out the opponent's weaknesses. In this zone it is considered good football to try three plays if necessary before kicking. Quite often a line buck is used on the first down with a wide end run from punt formation on the second down. However, very frequently teams playing a kicking game will punt on the second down, especially if little gain was made on the first try at the line.

In the third zone, the quarterbacks are cautioned against losing the ball on downs. Here they are told to kick when in doubt, but their purpose of attack is to get the first down in zone four.

In zone four, the team is expected either to score or to try a goal from the field. If the wind is blowing against the team they do not kick until the last down.

Straight Plays, Chance Plays and Psychological Plays

The plays are usually divided under three heads—first, the straight plays including runs, bucks, tackle plays and kicks; chance plays which include end runs, short forward passes and plays that are called psychological; gamble plays such as long forward passes, the double pass and lateral pass.

In zone one, where the purpose of the quarterback is to get his team out of the zone, he almost always uses only straight plays. If chance plays are used, they are of the cross buck variety or the psychological play where the quarterback takes advantage of some weakness on the other side. In this zone, the utmost protection is given the kicker. In zone two straight plays are used and chance plays with the exception of the short

forward pass. In zone three the team tries to gain ten yards in three downs by using a varied attack. The quarterback is permitted to use bucks on the fourth down if he thinks he has a chance of making first down. On first down such straight plays as show the most possibility of gaining four yards are used. On second down, if the team has gained four yards on the first trial, another straight play is used, but if only two yards, for instance, have been gained, the quarterback is instructed to use a chance play. On third down, if seven yards have not been gained on the first two trials, then the quarterback must use a chance play. In zone four the strategy and tactics are much the same as those employed in zone three except on fourth down when a gamble play may be used.

When this idea of football is employed, a great deal depends upon the team having a good defense and having developed its kicking game to a high degree of perfection. The kicking game is based on the idea that it is impossible to sustain an attack for more than half the field. Of course, it is foolish for a team that has a poor punter to use kicking as a means of attack. Further, the wind conditions affect the plans to a large degree. If not much time is left, it is not considered good football to kick under most conditions, but rather if the team is considerable distance from the goal and a score is needed, gamble plays are frequently employed.

The quarterback watches carefully for the breaks in the game. If the opponents drop a punt, if his own team recovers a fumble or if a pass is intercepted, then frequently the quarterback will try to demoralize the opponents by using a gamble play. The adherents of this system of attack hold rather closely to the zone idea except when nearing the end of the game and the team is behind.

Every effort is made not to waste energy. It is thought that a long sustained attack wears out the team and that the punting game is easier on the men. On the same theory, teams following this plan of football will seldom rush the ball in their own territory on fourth down with a yard to go and quarterbacks will be seriously censured for making long for-

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ward passes over the goal line on third down. Instead they are expected to try for a goal from the field. When near the sidelines, the kicker is not expected to punt except on fourth down, and the same rule holds when the team is near its own goal posts. When near the goal line, a forward pass is seldom used except on fourth down, since an incompleting pass will give the ball to the opponents on their twenty yard line.

Plays that start similarly and finish differently are featured. The shift formation is employed but the quarterback is instructed never to lose sight of the idea that he is to strike the opponents at their weakest place. After attacking the line successfully the quarterback watches to see if the opposing backs come up to reinforce their defensive line and if they do, forward passes are used. When the opponent's line is more or less demoralized, the effectiveness of the secondary line of defense on forward pass plays is impaired and very often a fake buck into the line followed by a forward pass will be successful.

Drop Kicks

Drop kicks are used early in the game even though the team may be behind. It is conservative football to try for a sure drop kick rather than to take a bigger chance for a touch-down, especially early in the game. It is figured that there will be another chance to score and that the early drop kick will give the team a psychological advantage.

In some sections of the country the quarterback is not featured as formerly. The old conservative idea of the quarterback is that he should study the opposing backs, watch the position in which they play, carefully observe what they do when his team shifts and study to see whether or not they change their style of play as the game progresses. The quarterback's line men are expected to keep him informed regarding the play of the opposing line men. If the ends on defense come in fast the backs on interference should advise the quarterback. The ends should tell him whether or not the tackles play wide and come in fast and which tackle is the weaker. The quarterback is a field general in every sense of the word. He leads and controls the team by the manner in which he calls signals and he speeds up the play or slows it down as occasion demands.

Teams employing this theory of attack usually make use of a defense that is more or less influenced by the philosophy of offensive tactics that is used. The defensive backs are in-

structed never to lose sight of the ball and they are drilled not to start on cross-bucks, tricks and split bucks until they actually see where the ball is. If a back is tense or nervous, he is inclined to start in fast and thus is apt to be fooled on split bucks or psychological plays. The coach will frequently slap him on the back in practice and tell him to loosen up—in other words, to stand relaxed. The back on forward passes must know the down and the distance each play has gained so as to enable him to guess what the opposing quarterback will do. For instance, if it is third down with several yards to make, he expects a chance or gamble play. He is expected to watch the opposing backs carefully, to notice the distance the kicker stands back of his line and to study the distance of the quarterback's hands. The theory of the defense so far as it pertains to the secondary line is that the defensive line should take care of bucks and off-tackle plays as much as possible. The defensive backs who are usually stationed five yards behind the line are coached to catch the passes rather than to knock them down. They are instructed further not to allow the opponents to get between them and their own goal line.

If the team is ahead, the men are told to look out for more gamble plays by the opponents. If the opposition uses a spread formation, the defense seldom changes unless the offensive quarterback is back of his center. The defensive quarterback frequently shifts for the purpose of worrying his opponents. One of the two backs behind the line of defense usually acts as a defensive captain.

The line on offense usually charges as a unit. The men at a distance from the play after their first efforts run down the field to make interference. The men who open up the hole are not expected to do anything else but they are instructed to study their opponents and to report their weaknesses to the quarterback. On defense, the line usually plays what is commonly called the cup defense. When this is used successfully the runner with the ball is forced either to run wide or to run into the center of the line where he will be tackled by the line men. The line on defense, plays an aggressive game.

Other articles in the Journal at different times have discussed another conception of football attack. The theories as outlined in this article are those that have been followed for a long time in American football and are still rigidly adhered to by the coaches in certain sections of the country.

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Amateurism Pro and Con

Amateur Athletic Authorities Are Attempting to Reach An Agreement as to Where the Line Should be Drawn Between the Amateur and the Professional

THE International Olympic Committee is studying the amateur question with the idea of either bringing about a change in present rules or of securing a more general acceptance on the part of the different nations of the principle that now endures. Some of the colleges that belong to the National Collegiate Athletic Association do not insist on amateurism as a standard of eligibility and some of the high school athletic associations likewise do not distinguish between professional and amateur athletics in terms of eligibility. The press of the country has this year at different times been disturbed by reports that Nurmi, Ritola, Paddock, Murchison and other men competing for the clubs are receiving pay for exhibitions.

Many persons ridicule the whole idea of amateurism. If they had their way we would have no amateur athletics, the colleges and high schools would pay their boys openly to play on the teams, and tennis and golf would be conducted as a professional amusement business as wrestling, boxing and baseball are conducted today. A frank discussion of this whole question should prove illuminating. With that in mind the following statements regarding the amateur question taken from different papers are presented to our readers.

Hugh Nichol, at one time a big league ball player and for a number of years manager and owner of minor league clubs and later Director of Athletics at Purdue University, some time ago wrote the following article for the Chicago Tribune which was later printed in the American Physical Education Review. Mr. Nichol's opinions are reproduced in the Journal not only because he speaks as one having authority, but further, because he presents a side of the question that is sometimes overlooked.

Minor Leagues No Place for Boys

"In reply to the many questions asked me regarding my views on the 'summer baseball' question I have the following to say:

"It is a serious question whose real importance may not reveal itself to the general public at first glance, but beneath the surface it involves a great principle of the utmost importance to college athletics and to the fathers and mothers of the young

men concerned. In this connection I may say that this problem has put intercollegiate athletics on thin ice.

"All the articles which have been written about summer baseball for college players have been accepted by the public as presenting the correct attitude toward this problem and, at first thought, the arguments set forth seem strong. However, all the arguments, boiled down, resolve themselves into one great mistake, that is, that it is unfair to the boy who has ability as a baseball player to bar him from earning money in this pursuit during vacation when he is permitted to earn money in any other way he desires.

The Journal will maintain an open section this fall for the discussion of questions pertaining to amateurism. The schools and colleges that do not maintain an amateur rule are specially urged to present their reasons. Let us have a frank discussion of this question in the Journal.

Not Familiar With Conditions

"The fact that a great number of educators advocate summer baseball and favor doing away with the present rule against the practice proves conclusively to me that they are wholly unfamiliar with the moral conditions that exist in not all small leagues but a majority of them, and it is such leagues that the average college player enters when he engages in professional baseball in the summer.

"I want it distinctly understood I am not opposed to baseball as a profession, because I know it to be a clean, honorable, and substantial profession, having within its ranks representatives of the highest type of men. In fact, a player in the big leagues must be a man of this type or he will never reach and be able to hold any position of importance there.

"Having been in the professional baseball business continuously as player, manager, and owner of clubs from 1881 until 1906, when I took up college work as physical and athletic director of Purdue University, and

being at the present time employed during the summer as scout for a National League club, I am in a position to know something about this atmosphere which surrounds these small league clubs and the dangers and temptations that beset a young man fresh from college when he enters this new environment.

Speaks From Personal Observation

"I am speaking of the small league clubs into which a college player, casting about for a temporary summer position, is most likely to drift. I speak from personal observation when I say that it takes a mighty strong character to withstand the snares and pitfalls that are thrown in the path of a good-looking college boy who is making good in a small outlaw or semi-professional league.

"In the first place, and I take the moral side of the question, I am rigidly opposed to young college boys playing professional baseball during the summer vacation, because they are just at the age when they are forming their life habits, and it takes little influence to incline them one way or another. I cannot think of a more dangerous environment for a young college man to enter than this of which I speak. It is not so much the influence of his association with other members of the team that opens up these temptations. The great danger comes from without, not from within the team.

Sought After by "Undesirables"

"The players, after each game, are sought after by certain persons of both sexes, who are by no means members of the Four Hundred. They are "jollied" by these admirers and "railroaded" into an atmosphere which is mighty undesirable for a boy in this habit-forming period. It was a great surprise to me, while attending a meeting in New York of nearly one hundred representatives of American colleges, faculty members, athletic directors, and others, to hear expressions from a great many educators, apparently a majority of them, in favor of summer baseball. It was a surprise to me to find that college professors and athletic advisers could possibly take such a stand without stopping to think of what the conditions really are that surround this summer baseball in which they are



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willing and apparently eager to allow their students to participate.

"With all due respect to these gentlemen, intelligent, cultured, conscientious men that they are, they talked of things they know absolutely nothing about. If they knew the real conditions not many of them would favor summer baseball. Such a stand is opposed to all the things which our colleges uphold and could not be sanctioned for a moment by any one having the welfare of the American university and the college boy at heart. Those educators who expressed themselves in favor of a change from the present system and letting down the bars between amateurism and professionalism did so simply because they were not acquainted with the real situation.

Boy in College's Care

"Let us take a boy from childhood and follow his career to college. As a child his parents have cared for him and watched over him through the grammar school and high school to see that his companions were the right kind of boys for him to play with. They have watched carefully to observe any bad habits he might be drifting into and have guided him aright. They have seen him develop into a nice, strong, clean-charactered young man. Then comes the important period in his life and theirs when they must send him away to an institution of higher learning. They are careful to select a place that will be best for him and his education, and a school where his moral development will receive proper attention. They intrust their boy to the keeping of the college authorities and expect them to take the place of father and mother in the boy's life while away from home. He is left largely on his own responsibility, but is expected to look to the college authorities for guidance.

"When the Young Men's Christian Association all over the civilized world are spending millions to provide places for young men and boys to enjoy healthful recreation during their leisure moments in moral, wholesome surroundings where they may enjoy the same advantages as elsewhere but free from the injurious influences of the resorts where they otherwise would congregate; when municipalities all over the United States are spending millions for playgrounds that young people may enjoy healthful sports and athletic pastimes in a proper atmosphere, is it right for the universities and colleges to encourage just the opposite?

"It may seem absurd that such a

thing would even be considered, yet this idea of permitting summer baseball would bring about just this result. To take a boy fresh from the influences of home, at a time when he is forming his life habits and is most susceptible to his environment, teach him to play baseball, and then turn him loose in an atmosphere such as surrounds small league teams would be most dangerous. How utterly unfair to the boy and to his parents would it be to permit such a thing.

Parents Would Denounce Move

"Yet it is just such a thing that many faculty members in American colleges advocate and propose doing. To encourage a boy to leave the moral, healthful atmosphere of a high grade college and enter the dangerous environment that surrounds a low grade baseball league is something so radically wrong that it cannot be defended on any ground when true conditions are known. If parents knew just what the question now being agitated meant would they be backward in denouncing such a move?

"The college baseball player when he joins a small league club is exposed to countless temptations, some of which may be mentioned. In the first place, he is an unwelcome addition to the team. Players look with contempt upon his college-cut clothes and manners. Being collegebred he is looked upon as being necessarily "sissy." The boy himself is in a brand new atmosphere. For the first time, perhaps, he is free from restraint and feels he may do things he could not do under the eyes of the college professors and his fellow students.

Wants to be "Good Scout"

"He has been grinding his way through school with little thought of the outside world. The novelty of the new environment appeals strongly to his imaginative mind. He observes how his teammates regard him and resolves to show them they are wrong in their opinion of him and that he is just like them. He tries to make good in their estimation. He is anxious to prove he is game and a "good scout." He gradually begins to do the things the others do as a matter of course, and soon indulges in dangerous pursuits.

"I do not say all boys do this. Some of them have will power enough to resist temptations, but a large majority of them take just the path described. I have had many of them on my teams and have seen them go just that way. Bright, manly chaps they were, but the atmosphere about them was too strong. I am satisfied

that if the educators who are advocating summer baseball knew these conditions they would change their minds quickly about this question. The trouble is they know only one side.

A great deal is heard about the college men who make good in the big league baseball, but we never hear of the hundreds of college men who try and fail, and many of them ruin themselves making the attempt. I am satisfied that if the parents of a boy who are stinting themselves to furnish the money to send him through college knew the facts they would mortgage their homes to raise the necessary money rather than have him exposed to the immoral conditions referred to. These advocates of summer baseball say it is unfair to deprive the boy of a means of making money in the summer. I claim it is unfair to his parents to permit him to earn money in this way.

Rule Can be Enforced

"The argument advanced by some that the present rule against summer baseball should be abolished because it cannot be enforced is a weak one. It is enforced in some schools; why can it not be enforced in all? If all colleges were in earnest about enforcing the rule, in my judgment it could be done.

"I would advise any college student who has unusual ability as a baseball player and who desires to follow baseball as a profession to get his college diploma first. He will learn later, when his days as a baseball player are over, just how valuable that little document is. He should play on the college team and do his best to develop himself as a player and at the same time complete his college course. By the time he is graduated he will have acquired the ability as a player, if the ability is in him, to command a trial in fast company and will have passed the habit-forming age to a great extent.

"I am not opposed to professional baseball, because there are as many gentlemen to the square inch in that profession as in any other profession; but I am opposed to professional baseball for boys while in college."

The Springfield, Missouri, Republican under date line of July 29th suggests that the amateur question was discussed by Dr. Samuel Johnson in 1758. The editorial follows:

Unjustified Criticism

"The modern athlete is universally condemned for being mercenary. He is accused of caring less for the victory than for the 'laurels,' and the

'laurels' must be of greater intrinsic or monetary value than a vegetable wreath. As some-view the modern athlete he is no longer a *sportsman* but businessman selling his athletic prowess.

"Professionalism in athletics has not stopped short of the sand lot, the college stadium and the high school athletic field. Players in the home town baseball teams play for a regular wage instead of for the old inter-community rivalry, and college athletes trade their services for tuitions and even salaries. However this commercializing of sportsmanship is not new with this generation. In 'The Idler' of May 20, 1758, Dr. Samuel Johnson discussed with due lamentations and caustic criticism the same matter. Commenting on the feat of a lady who wagered she could ride a horse a thousand miles in as many hours and win he said:

"There was once a time when wreaths of bays or oak were considered as recompenses equal to the most wearisome labors and terrific dangers, and when the miseries of long marches and stormy seas were at once driven from the remembrance by the fragrance of a garland.

"But fate reserved her (the betting equestrienne) for a more enlightened age, which has discovered leaves and flowers to be transitory things; which considers profit as the end of honor; and rates the event of every undertaking only by the money that is gained or lost."

"So the modern athlete is but emulating his forebears. And there is this additional thing to say in defense of commercialized sports: The spectator portion of the population usually patronizes that in which it is interested. It is reasonable to believe that the spectator of this day and age, who pays for his sports, is a greater lover of athletics than was the Grecian on-looker, who rewarded his athletes with a garland of weeds."

The San Francisco Bulletin of July 27th under the heading, "Good Sportsmanship," suggests that good sportsmanship is more often shown in amateur athletics than in professional athletics and cites a case to prove the point. Of course a few illustrations like this one of Tilden's will not settle the issue but probably most fair minded people will agree with the Bulletin in its conclusions.

Good Sportsmanship

"Hats off to W. L. Tilden, tennis player, for his splendid exhibition of good sportsmanship during the progress of a match at Glencoe, Ill., a few days ago. Robert and Howard Kinsey

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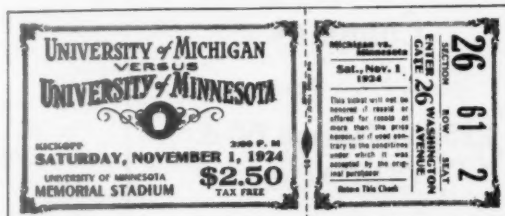
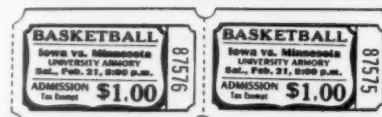
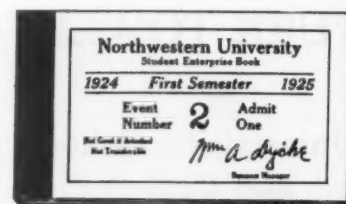
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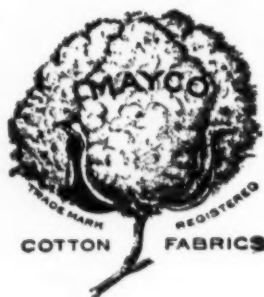
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were leading two sets to one, three games to two and were 30-0 in the fourth set, when they had to default their semi-final match in the Illinois state doubles tournament to W. L. Tilden and Al Weiner because Robert Kinsey's leg went back on him and failed to respond to treatment.

"Tilden offered to default to the Kinseys, stating that he and Weiner were virtually beaten, but the officials were adamant and insisted upon counting out the players unable to resume. The winning or losing of a tennis championship may be a small matter to those not interested in the game, but all Americans must feel proud of a player who is unwilling to take advantage of his opponent's accidental disability. It is such spirit that ennobles sport, and any sport that develops such spirit is contributing much to the national character.

"Incidentally, it affords a striking exhibition of the difference between amateur and professional sport. Where is the professional pugilist or where are the professional ballplayers that would be willing to call off a fight or game under similar circumstances. As for giving the victory to the other side, even when it was leading up to the point of interruption—well, it isn't done. The professional is out for the money."

The *Chicago Tribune* in the August 4th issue suggests that "underneath much of our amateur distinction there is an imported idea that a man who makes money in a sport cannot be a gentleman." The article follows:

Amateur Standing

"William Tilden, the tennis champion, has saved his amateur standing again. The executive committee of the United States Lawn Tennis Association had ruled that he could not write tennis articles for pay, describing events in which he was a competitor, and remain an amateur. He quit writing, but he gave authorized interviews and the committee decided that dodge was as bad as the other. Tilden chose to retain his amateur standing rather than his pay check and promised to divorce tennis and business.

"Many great tennis players have no real amateur standing. The only difference between them and such men as Dempsey, Ruth, Strangler Lewis, etc., is that these professionals make their money in the sport in which they are most proficient. Some tennis players do nothing but play tennis. In Europe they follow tennis weather all over the continent and are playing all year around. They must have incomes to do it, but tennis is

not only their game. It is their only occupation.

"Amateur classification is properly to keep people who can devote only their play time to a game from the competition of people who make the game a vocation. There ought to be some chance for the play time player to win distinction and in most sports he has no chance against the player who is devoting his life to the one object of proficiency in the sport. Generally "amateur" means not so good. If a man must sit at a desk eight or nine hours a day to make his living before he can play he has no chance of being so good as the fellow who is at it all the time.

"A player who does nothing else than play tennis is a professional, whether he makes money at it or not, and when committees fiddle with rules they do not change the practical fact. The English know the distinction as 'players and gentlemen.' Underneath much of our amateur distinctions there is an imported idea that a man who makes money in a sport cannot be a gentleman.

"A young filing clerk or lawyer or manufacturer who was a good amateur at tennis would have as much chance with Tilden as a college boxing champion would have with Harry Greb or Gene Tunney."

The *JOURNAL* believes that present-day professional athletics, as exemplified by the major leagues under the direction of Judge Landis, is an honorable business and one that has a place in our scheme of things. We further believe that it is necessary to draw a distinction somewhere between the amateur and the professional. An arbitrary rule has been laid down that a man who receives pay for participating in athletics shall not thereafter be permitted to compete against those who have not made a business of their sports. Perhaps this is not the place where the line should be drawn. If so, the *Chicago Tribune* will render a service to national athletics by suggesting a better distinction between amateurism and professionalism. The *Tribune* probably does not intend to suggest that all good athletes should be paid as a reward for their excellency in sports. Certainly the *Tribune* would not suggest that the schools and colleges buy and sell their players in the same manner that players are bought and sold in baseball. The present amateur rule may not be perfect. If some one can suggest a better means of safeguarding amateur athletics than those that now exist, certainly the friends of amateur athletics would all welcome the suggestion.

Changes in the Coaching Personnel for 1925

ONE-THIRD of the athletic coaches are either taking up coaching as a profession for the first time this fall or are starting the year in a new position. Athletic coaching is a standardized profession today and we believe that the men engaged in this work are interested in knowing what others are doing. Hence this section devoted to changes in coaching positions.

L. D. Parker, who last year was captain of the Indiana University basketball team, has accepted the position as assistant athletic director and head basketball and track coach at Indiana State Normal School, Muncie, Indiana.

Milwaukee Normal School has announced that Percy Clapp, tackle and guard on the University of Minnesota football teams in 1923 and 1924, has been elected to the position of head football and track coach.

Jimmie Haywood is the new athletic director at Southern College, Lakeland, Florida. He is a former Vanderbilt University quarterback and has been coach of all athletics at Henderson Brown College, Arkadelphia, Arkansas since 1917.

C. V. Litich, who has been athletic coach at Yankton High School, Yankton, South Dakota, has resigned to go to the University of North Dakota at Grand Forks. He will be succeeded by Myron E. Vanells, a graduate of the University of Wisconsin, who has held coaching positions both at Geneva, Illinois, and at Watertown, Wisconsin. Last year Vanell's Watertown basketball team was in the Wisconsin State Tournament finals.

River Falls Normal School (Wisconsin) has signed a contract with Ted Cox, captain of the 1924 University of Minnesota football team, to be football and basketball coach for the coming year.

Bill Spaulding has announced the signing of Fred Oster, former University of Minnesota player, as freshman football coach at the University of California, Southern Branch.

J. F. Van Antwerp will become assistant coach at Monmouth College this fall. He is a graduate of Hanover College, Indiana, and has been Director of Athletics at Mount Morris College. This summer he attended the Iowa coaching school.

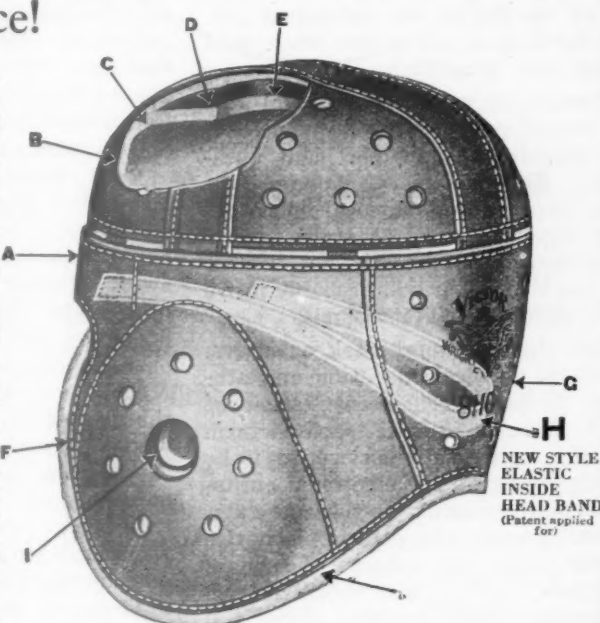
Ossie Solem, new Director of Athletics at Drake University, announces that Bill Boelter and Jack Sparks, two of Solem's Drake football players, will serve as varsity assistants this year.

(Continued on page 44)

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By Elton E. Wieman

Assistant Director of Intercollegiate Athletics, University of Michigan

IT has been my observation that we physical educators and coaches (and, for that matter, most other people as well) frequently become so engrossed in the petty problems surrounding our own particular jobs that we are apt to lose sight of the real objectives of our profession. The exacting demands of our daily work enslave our thinking machinery to the extent that it is too often confined to the narrow limits of routine. If we are to enjoy a broader conception of our work and a better appreciation of its significance, we must lift ourselves out of the rut of our individual jobs and think in terms of the whole field of physical education.

Possibly it would prove helpful if we should pause more frequently to ask ourselves a few pertinent questions. For example, I wonder how many coaches and physical educators ever seriously tried to state exactly what they were trying to do. Unless one has tried it, it will probably prove more difficult than it sounds.

And then we might ask ourselves, "How do physical education and athletics fit into the general scheme of life? Does the athletic coach perform a really worth-while service, or is he merely living on the emotional enthusiasm of the crowd? Is there any significant reason why athletic activities should receive the support of schools, churches, universities, industrial organizations and private clubs and agencies of all kinds, as they do? In short, what is the function of competitive sport?"

It seems to me there is need for considerable thinking along these lines. I don't suppose physical educators will ever fully agree as to what their objectives are—any more than other educators have—but that does not mean that each one should not give the matter careful thought in an effort to determine what, for him, is most worth while. Until we know where we are trying to go, it will be pretty hard to select the best road.

Perhaps, to begin the story we should look back into history and sketch briefly the origin and development of physical education and athletics. If we do this, we find that primitive man was driven to physical activity for self-preservation. His livelihood and his life depended upon his ability to control his body. When

danger threatened, he protected himself by means of strenuous physical activity. When he was hungry, he got food only by physical exertion. It was a question of the survival of the fittest. The weak got no meat.

In primitive life there were five principal methods of locomotion; walking, running, jumping, swimming and climbing. There were five principal ways of handling objects: lifting, pushing, pulling, throwing, striking. To gain subsistence everyone was driven to the exercise of these activities. Under such a system of living, physical education, as such, was not necessary. Nature, herself, saw to it that man had sufficient physical exercise to keep in good condition. Athletic games served only as recreation and as tests of skill.

Even down to a time within the memory of people now living, it might be said with liberal accuracy that men and women "earned their bread by the sweat of their brows." Then almost over night something happened that disrupted this program of muscular exertion completely and for all time. Machines of new design were put on the market—engines that fed on coal, water, petroleum and electricity—and the human body which had held a monopoly on mechanical power since time began, awoke one morning to find its occupation gone. With machinery now in operation, turning out a hundred times as much energy as the total man-power of the nation could possibly provide, there is very little chance for muscle to regain its lost position.

Today we are recognizing that these changes must be met by an extensive

"There are three ideas of intelligence—first intelligence in ideas, second, there is the mechanical type of intelligence, and third, there is social intelligence which enables one to get along with one's comrades and to understand and appreciate their point of view."

Mr. Wieman suggests that the departments of physical education and athletics have more to do with social intelligence than any other department of a college or high school.

readjustment of our system of living if the race is to survive and cope successfully with the changed conditions. It is being recognized that some substitute must of necessity be provided for the activities of primitive life involving the fundamental bodily movements: walking, running, jumping, swimming, climbing, lifting, pushing, pulling, throwing, striking. These activities use up energy to the extent that they determine the amount of food needed and the amount of waste to be eliminated, and therefore control indirectly the activity of the heart, lungs, breathing muscles, and all the organs on which health and vigor depend. If our life does not naturally call these activities into play to a sufficient extent, it is imperative that we go about it definitely to provide for them.

It is in recognition of this need in present-day living that men and women everywhere are turning to athletics. The startling revelations of the draft records have driven the lesson home so that there is today not only a greater interest in physical education and athletics than ever before, but a wide-spread appreciation of their necessity in modern life. Most of our people have come to the point where they are saying, as President Coolidge recently said before the National Conference on Outdoor Recreation in Washington, "Athletics have become necessary." No longer are athletic activities considered merely as a means of recreation, important as that function may be, but they constitute a positive requirement for wholesome living.

The lawmakers of thirty-two states have recognized this need by passing legislation making physical education a *required* part of all elementary and secondary school curricula. Probably this legislation was based, for the most part, on hygienic grounds and as hygienic measures, such laws are necessary. But in addition to the hygienic considerations, there is another great field of values in games which we are now only beginning fully to appreciate. Competitive sport is not only recreative and hygienic—it is EDUCATIVE as well. And it is to these last values—the educative values—that I wish to devote the rest of this paper.

When I put emphasis on the educa-


tive functions, I would not have my readers think that I am minimizing the other values in sport. The recreational, remedial and hygienic values are vital, but they are up to this time better understood. In placing emphasis on the educational aspects of competitive sport, I am taking the other values more or less for granted.

One school of modern psychologists has separated intelligence into three parts. First, these psychologists state, there is *intelligence in ideas*, the aspect which has received almost exclusive attention in our schools and colleges until a comparatively recent time. It has to do with the logical and the acquisitive functions of the mind and is academic in its entire bearing. Then there is the *mechanical* type of intelligence which enables one to have a fellow feeling for a machine and to know instinctively what it is all about. And, lastly, there is *social* intelligence which enables one to get along with one's comrades and to understand and appreciate their points of view.

Which type of intelligence is most important is a question that can be answered only by expressions of opinion and is, therefore, one that does not particularly interest me. That all are essential is perfectly apparent and, it seems to me, that is about as far as we can go in classifying their relative importance. It does strike me, however, that the third type of intelligence is more universally necessary than either of the others. With *intelligence in ideas* and *social intelligence*, an individual might well lead an exceedingly useful life without *mechanical* intelligence. And, in the same manner, he might be of great service without much intelligence in ideas provided there is combined in him a high degree of mechanical intelligence with well developed social intelligence. However, without the ability to get along with his fellows and to understand their points of view, which is part of social intelligence, his effectiveness is very seriously impaired no matter how highly developed the other phases of his intelligence may be.

Social Intelligence

It is in this third field of intelligence—social intelligence—that athletics makes its greatest contribution. The departments of physical education and athletics have more to do with this phase of intelligence than any other departments of a college or high school. In games and organized sport of various kinds the qualities of good sportsmanship, of courage, patience, sacrifice, and the everlasting rubbing up against one's fellows are

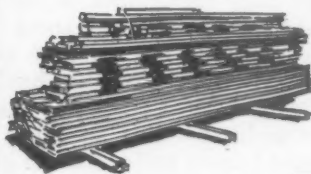


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prime factors. In this connection, Dean Herbert E. Hawkes, of Columbia University, has this to say: "The responsibility for educating the social intelligence is just as great, and our failure to emphasize that aspect of intelligence is just as lamentable, as neglect of the phase of intelligence which has to do with ideas. Every department in college, from the Classics to Sociology, is focusing on the latter. Physical education, alone, has an opportunity, officially, to do work which brings out and develops the social intelligence."

Another eminent educator, William McAndrew, Superintendent of Schools

in Chicago, has this to say: "We believe it our duty to prepare students for life rather than for College Board Examinations. Some think that moral and civic education in the schools should be incidental. But which is more important, American ideals or arithmetic? How to be honest or how to spell? Let Latin and Biology be incidental and the duties and rights of citizenship be the main show." In other words, in the opinion of Superintendent McAndrew, social intelligence should come first.

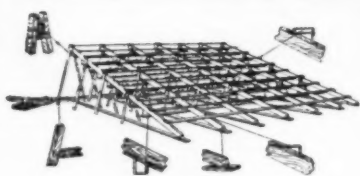
Probably the best statement that I have ever heard regarding the educational values in athletics was made by Professor Kennedy of Princeton University before the National Collegiate Athletic Association in New York last December. Although Professor Kennedy does not use the term, the points he makes are all factors in social intelligence. He said in part: "In competitive team games an individual is competing as a representative of the institution to which he belongs and this simple fact, it seems to me, makes a world of difference. If you or I make an engagement to play golf or tennis with a friend, we represent nothing but ourselves. If we do not train, if we do not practice, if we violate the code of sportsmanship, our actions reflect upon no one but ourselves. But if with four or five others we are engaged in a team match to represent our golf club, or our tennis club, against another, there at once enters into our play the principle of representation and this principle is likely to alter the whole nature of our competition. We are likely to feel, and the club is likely to feel, that we are no longer completely free agents, that we are in fact their representatives charged with the responsibility of representing them as well as we possibly can in skill and in sportsmanship, and that the club has a right to define the degree of skill and the quality of sportsmanship which shall represent it. This subordination of individual freedom to representative responsibility is a factor, it seems to me, of primary importance in any discussion of school or college sport.

"I recognize, of course, that sport has a value in improving the physique of a growing boy. I recognize that it has a value in affording an outlet for the natural human desire for the playing of games. But the intensity of my faith in sport is not based on either of these grounds. It is based upon the conviction that competitive athletics properly supervised and properly developed afford a laboratory training for the development of character such as is not afforded elsewhere in the life of the average boy. I am

glad to have this opportunity to define my faith. The training of the average student, as I see it, falls into three phases. First, his mind is being informed and disciplined, and his intellectual powers developed. Second, in addition to intellectual development, qualities of character are being strengthened in him—will, resolution, patience—by his efforts to analyze and solve the problems presented to him day by day in the various fields of study he has chosen. His character is being developed by a struggle against himself, a struggle against his own inaptitude and inability. But there is, I believe, a third phase of education in which character must be developed and made strong in a growing boy not only by competition against himself but by competition against others. It is in this field that our whole modern system of sport plays so important a function. Nothing is more important than that a boy should learn, during the formative years of his life, to control and command his own powers, to focus them upon a single end, to mobilize them quickly and completely, and yet to do so with a chivalrous regard for the rights of others and the rules of the game. This is a training, it seems to me, that lies at the heart of all development of an individual toward good and useful citizenship. Now, it is possible in the class-room to preach all this to a boy, to show him the need and the importance of it, but it is vital and imperative that he should have something like a laboratory training in carrying out the precepts we give him. Sport furnishes such a laboratory.

"In competitive sport it is necessary for a boy to mobilize at a given time and a given place all the skill and intelligence and courage that he possesses to do this in the face of the most strenuous opposition; to do it with a smile and cool head; to do it in a spirit of chivalrous sportsmanship that will not permit him to stoop to that which is base and mean in order to win. If any system that furnishes such a training as this is not very directly serving an educational purpose, then certainly many of us are in error as to what the ends of education should be in the case of the growing boy.

"When a boy comes to school our great task is to inform and discipline his mental powers that he may possess a sharp-edged and tempered weapon wherewith to confront life. But we must also teach him a code of honor and chivalry that will govern his use of that weapon. And the great service of sport is that it can be made to do much for the boy in teaching him



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that code. The great value of sport is sportsmanship. If we haven't that, we haven't anything. It says to the boy, 'You are going to find in this world that there are causes that will mobilize and drain out of you the last ounce of your endeavor, of your initiative, of your devotion. These causes must be met and won, if they are won at all, without crossing the line that represents the sacrifice of integrity and chivalry, or sportsmanship, or honesty. You must learn to fight with the best that you can give, *and yet never do the thing that would enable you to win if it violates the code.*'

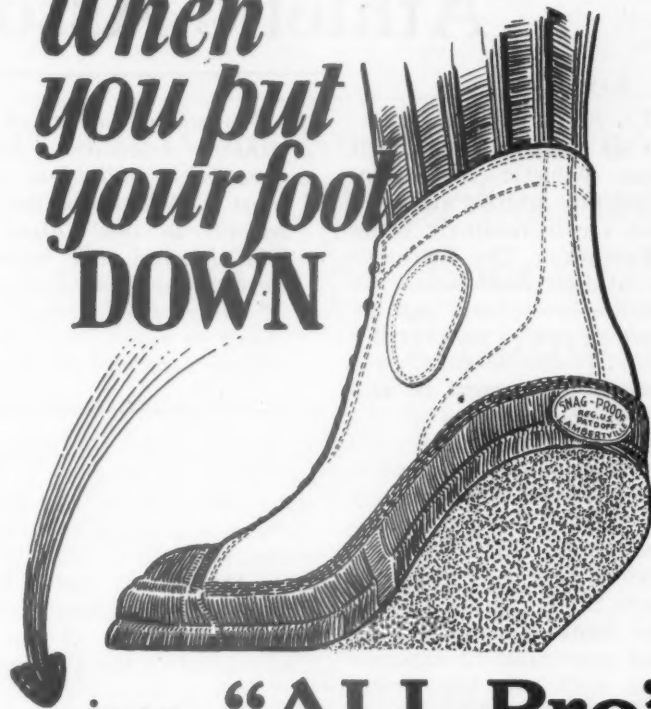
"That is what the world today most needs; that is what business demands; that is what the professions demand; that is what the manhood of this country depends on; and where will you get a laboratory training in that such as sport can give? You can preach the code to these boys in the lecture room, in the class-room, in the churches, but you know and I know that being told what to do or how to do it is not the same thing as going out and taking off your coat and rolling up your sleeves and trying to do it. That is when you learn whether you have got it in you, or whether you have not; and I say sport provides that training.

"Moreover, in this world there is no one who can succeed in everything, all the time. The world was not designed on the principle that we should; the great question that life presents as a challenge to character is: How does a man meet failure and defeat? Does he curl up and quit? Does he present an alibi? Does he whine? Does he attack the ability or sportsmanship of his opponent? Or does he stand on his two feet, with his chest out and a clear eye and, with self-respect, say to his opponent, 'Here is my hand; you were a better man than I was, that day, that time; but if you please, we shall play again!'"

When a boy engages in an athletic contest he sees his plans succeed and he sees them fail. He calls into use his every resource in an effort to gain his goal. His plans are thwarted time and time again. Great obstacles are thrown in his way. He is checked in his plans, held up, thrown back. And then, perhaps, through ability and perseverance and courage and faith he battles on finally to overcome the obstacles and gain the goal. Here are examples of most of our human experiences crowded into a few minutes of strenuous activity. Where, may I ask, can you find a truer picture of life?

(Continued on page 46)

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News From the State High School Athletic Associations

Kentucky

R. E. HILL, Secretary and Treasurer of the Kentucky High School Athletic Association, reports that athletic interest and good sportsmanship are increasingly satisfactory in Kentucky. The Kentucky High School Athletic Association has been in existence seven years and the year past had an active membership of two hundred twenty-seven schools. A state baseball tournament is held annually under the auspices of the Western State Teachers College, and a state track meet under the auspices of the State University. The state is divided into eighteen tournament districts for basketball, and the winners in these districts, both boys' and girls' teams, compete in the annual tournament at the State University. All traveling and entertainment expenses in connection with this tournament are paid the visiting teams.

Delaware

The Delaware Interscholastic Athletic Association a year ago reorganized its entire constitution so as to broaden its field of activity in physical education and to include in its organization all of the elementary schools of the state. All of the high schools of Delaware and all of the three or more teacher elementary schools have paid up their membership fees during the past year to the Association. In Delaware in the elementary schools more emphasis is placed upon mass athletics than interscholastic contests. In the high schools, interscholastic athletics are promoted, including football, baseball, track and field, and basketball for both boys and girls. All of the schedules are arranged and approved indirectly by the State Executive Committee. This method of procedure has proved very successful in Delaware. H. B. King, Dover, Delaware, is the assistant in charge of elementary schools.

Indiana

Arthur L. Trester, Permanent Secretary of the Indiana High School Athletic Association, has been giving a course in "Administration of Physical Education and Athletics in High Schools" this summer both at the Terre Haute Normal School and Indiana University.

In Indiana proposal for a legislative body is up for consideration. Following is a statement of the proposal:

Forty-five State High School Athletic Associations now have enrolled as individual members most of the prominent high schools in the United States. The Journal will occasionally devote a section to the interest of these Associations that are doing so much for high school athletics throughout the nation.

"A proposal for the formation of a legislative body for the I. H. S. A. A. was submitted to the High School Principals in April, 1925, and a referendum vote will be taken this fall soon after the schools open. For several years there had been requests and suggestions made to the Board of Control and to the Permanent Secretary that a legislative body be formed to legislate for the State Association. Legislation up to this time has been the program of the annual meeting of the principals, but this body has grown too large for legislative purposes. The annual meeting will still be held under the new proposal but the program will be made up of interpretations, discussions, suggestions, inspirational addresses and technical talks by leading school men, directors and coaches.

"The proposal provides for the election of fifteen representatives to sit with the five members of the Board of Control to form a state legislative body. These fifteen representatives as well as the five Board of Control members will be elected by the principals of the districts by mail vote so that the whole body will be entirely representative and elective. It is thought that this body will be able to discuss rules, regulations and methods of procedure in athletics in a calm, deliberative way for the good of physical education, athletics and school work in general. According to the sentiment among the principals in the membership, it is believed that the proposal will pass by a large majority of the voters. If the proposal passes, the election of the members of the legislative body will take place immediately and a meeting of the legislative body will be called at an early date."

Wyoming

Morgan D. Davis has resigned his position as Secretary of the Wyoming

High School Athletic Association. His successor has not yet been announced.

Ohio

Mr. H. R. Townsend has been appointed Commissioner of high school athletics for the Ohio State High School Athletic Association. His address is Columbus, Ohio.

Iowa

Mr. George A. Brown, Executive Secretary of the Iowa High School Athletic Association, George Edward Marshall, Chairman of this Association, and Eugene Heneley, Treasurer of the Iowa organization, all attended the meeting of physical educators at the University of Iowa this summer. Mr. Marshall and Mr. Heneley have been identified with the Iowa State High School Athletic Association for nearly a quarter of a century. In fact, they are pioneers in high school athletic work.

Michigan

Mr. A. W. Thompson, State Athletic Director of the Michigan High School Athletic Association, spent part of his summer vacation at the University of Michigan.

The Michigan High School Athletic Association, which is definitely connected with the State Department of Public Instruction in the supervision and direction of state interscholastic athletic affairs, has as its field seven hundred senior high schools, seventy-five junior high schools, and one hundred parochial high schools with interscholastic athletic programs. Eligibility rules and their interpretations have been recently simplified and revised. All high schools in Michigan by law comply with the regulations of the State Association.

A meeting at Michigan State College at Lansing to discuss 1926 football rules' interpretations for Michigan high schools has been called for September 19th. The program will include discussion of standards of athletic sportsmanship and general athletic problems. L. L. Forsythe, President of the State Association, and Major Griffith of the Western Conference will be the principal speakers. Ralph Young of Michigan State College will conduct the discussion of rules' interpretations.

South Carolina

J. D. Fulp, Secretary-Treasurer of the South Carolina League, writes:

"The South Carolina High School League was founded in 1913 under the auspices of the University of South Carolina, and continued to function as organized until the spring of 1921 when the League was reorganized and the entire control of its activities was taken over in toto by the high school men of the state. Since 1921 the South Carolina High School League has been unique in its control, probably being the only high school athletic association in the United States that is administered wholly by the high school superintendents and principals without the supervision of the State University.

"The contests which are held under the auspices of the League are: football, basketball, both boys' and girls'; baseball, track, declamation, expression, debating, typewriting and stenography, English and Latin. These latter two were added to the list of contests at the annual meeting of the League held in April, 1925.

"Of the one hundred and sixty-two four-year standard high schools in South Carolina, one hundred and twenty-one schools were members of the South Carolina High School League during the session 1924-1925. The annual dues are \$10.

"Before entering any of the League

contests a pupil must submit a certificate of his parent's permission to participate; a certificate from his physician stating that he is physically fit; and a certificate from his principal stating that he is entirely eligible

under the constitution of the League.

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game was protested. This protest was thrown out by the executive committee.

"A new departure in South Carolina for the coming session is the division of the State into nine districts which will permit a school in each of the nine districts to win the district championship in the various contests. The winning teams in the nine districts will then compete for the up-state and low-state championships. The final contest for the State championship will be between the winners of the up-state and low-state sections. All final contests are held on the State University campus."

Texas

Roy Bedichek, Chief, Interscholastic League Bureau, Extension Division, University of Texas, writes:

"The most pressing item on the athletic program of the University of Texas Interscholastic League just now is the organization of the high school football race for the 1925 season. For the purposes of this competition, the schools of the state are divided into two conferences, Conference A including those schools with an enrollment of three hundred and fifty or more and Conference B including the schools with an enrollment of less than three hundred and fifty. There are eight sections in Conference A and sixteen sections in Conference B. Sectional championships in both sections are decided about mid-season, championships in Conference B being decided one week earlier than in Conference A sections. In the final run-off the eight bi-sectional champion Conference B teams are placed against the eight sectional champion Conference A teams, and the survivors of this round are bracketed for the final games, which occur in the two weeks following Thanksgiving. This plan was first put into operation by the League last season, and it was found that it stimulated much greater interest among the smaller schools than it had formerly been possible to stimulate.

"The warmest fight in the League now is over the new proposed eligibility rule barring transfers from competition for one year, even though the parents of the contestant move with him to the new school. It has been charged that schools have been guilty under the present rule of moving whole families and guaranteeing the father more than a "living wage" in order to get the services of a promising athletic member of the family. A referendum vote upon the proposed new rule has been conducted from the State Office of the League among participating high schools, and the re-

turns show that at present writing (July 24) the new rule will carry about two to one. The State Executive Committee of the League will then decide whether or not to put it into immediate effect, or give one year's notice before allowing the rule to become operative.

"Last season three hundred and twenty high schools participated in the state championship football race, and nearly three hundred have already entered the competition for the ensuing season. Acceptance of the League's football plan may be made as late as October 1.

"The League also decides a state championship for high schools in basketball, about eight hundred high schools participating each year. Eliminations are made by sections until thirty-two sectional champions are decided. Bi-sectional matches reduce this number to the sixteen teams which are eligible to entry in the State Tournament held at the University of Texas early in March each year.

"Following the basketball season, the work of organizing and conducting two hundred and twenty county track meets is taken up, winning teams qualifying for district meets, thirty-two in number. First, second, third and fourth place winners in any one of the thirty-two district meets are qualified for entry in the State Meet which is held at the University of Texas the first Thursday, Friday and Saturday in May each year. It is not an invitation affair, by any means, but is built up on the basis of strict eliminations from the county and district meets.

"Baseball has never been organized for high schools in Texas on a state championship basis. The season is short and conflicts with the county meets, and for that reason the University Interscholastic League has never felt that it could successfully undertake this activity, although, in the opinion of the writer, it is the best sport yet for high schools, has higher educational value than any other, and develops more nearly the American athletic ideal than any other sport.

"Of course, the University Interscholastic League does not confine itself by any means to athletic competitions. It conducts statewide competitions, organized on a state championship basis, in debate, boys' and girls' divisions, extemporaneous speech, declamation in six divisions, music memory, spelling, journalism and local history. It has a paid-up membership of four thousand schools in the state. Last May it held its fifteenth annual state meet."

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Questions and Answers

Many Unusual Plays Occur Each Year in Football Which Require Quick Decisions on the Part of the Officials

By Frank Lane

(Q) "A" team is forward passing and its right end jumps high to receive the pass; however, before he can actually secure possession of the ball, as he is juggling it, he is tackled hard by a player on team "B." Another "B" team player picks up the ball which has been dropped by the "A" team end and runs for a touchdown. A vigorous protest upon part of the "A" team captain results in his banishment from the game as the referee rules the play a touchdown, despite the fact that the "A" team end had never had the ball actually in his possession and had practically lost the ball an instant after it hit his fingertips. What is your idea of this play?

(A) The play as you outline it, would seem as though an official, probably the umpire who generally rules on completed or incompletes passes, had erred for if the player had never had possession of the ball it could not justly be ruled a fumbled or "free" ball. However, you must remember such plays are just a matter of an official's judgment and probably in his estimation (which may have been correct) the player actually caught the ball and did not fumble it until after the hard tackle you mention.

(Q) The rules state that a player cannot be ruled offside when behind his own goal line but in a game against ——— last year, we were kicking from behind our goal line and our right halfback who was behind the goal line recovered the kick on about the 25-yard line before anyone had touched it and raced seventy-five yards for what we thought was a touchdown but the referee called the ball back to the 25-yard line where our player had picked up the ball and gave it to the other side. We explained the rule but the referee refused to listen or give heed stating "an offside player had touched the ball and that was all there was to it." How do you account for this rule in the book then if the official was right?

(A) The rule is plain enough especially from your statement that "a player cannot be ruled offside WHEN behind his own goal line"; the rule means just that, that a player may move in any direction while behind his own goal line but certainly in the play you mention, the instant he

stepped out on the field of play beyond the goal line he was "offside" until a player of the side receiving the kick had first touched the ball.

(Q) There is a play that I saw executed by several college elevens last fall that I cannot understand as to its legality. The play is one, in which the quarterback crouched under the center and receiving the ball from him faked a pass to a backfield man who made a fake buck. The quarterback then handed the ball forward to the guard, probably tucking it under that player's bent knee (in the rear) where an end or halfback swooped down from the direction opposite to that to which the fake buck was directed and carried the ball, in many instances, with little or no opposition from the surprised defensive team. This play appeared illegal to me as the quarterback was not five yards back when he made the pass to the guard, in fact, he was right up against that player and yet I have not seen the play called back by an official. What is your idea of this play as I have described it?

(A) The play as you describe it is certainly not legal on two, or possibly three, counts. The first count which you mention, the making of a forward pass with the passer less than five yards back; the second count, and a graver penalty of losing the ball is connected with it, that of a forward pass hitting or being touched by an ineligible player (the guard) which means the loss of the ball to the other side at the point where the ball was put in play; the third count, on which I may have many with whom to dispute my opinion, is that of the rule that penalizes any of the three middle men (guards and center) for "carrying" the ball unless five yards back. While some contend that the "holding" of the ball is not "carrying" it, I maintain that the spirit of the rule is that it is not intended that any of the three "middle men" be eligible to participate in the play you describe, regardless of the play on the meaning of the word "carrying."

(Q) Player on "A" team signals for fair catch but the ball is blown by the wind over his head to another player on his team who has not signalled. The ball is caught before it has touched the ground and a subse-

quent runback nets "A" team some twenty yards but the referee brings the ball back to where it had been caught, giving it to "A" team. Does a player, according to this, "fair catch" for the entire team?

(A) Your question as to a player "fair catching" for the entire team is not quite clear but for your information I will state that the "fair catch" and its privileges (of free kick etc.) are allowable only when the ball is caught by such player or players that have each separately and distinctly signalled. Should a player other than the one or more signalling as mentioned in your question above catch the ball before it has struck the ground, then the run back is not allowable. However, it must be borne in mind that even though signalling for a fair catch, if the ball is fumbled, then it is permissible for any player of either side to run with such a free ball.

(Q) "A" team attempts a forward pass from its own 10-yard line, the ball is batted down by the defensive halfback and grounded behind "A" team's goal line. "A" team claims a touchback but the referee rules it a safety giving the defensive team the subsequent two points. Was this correct?

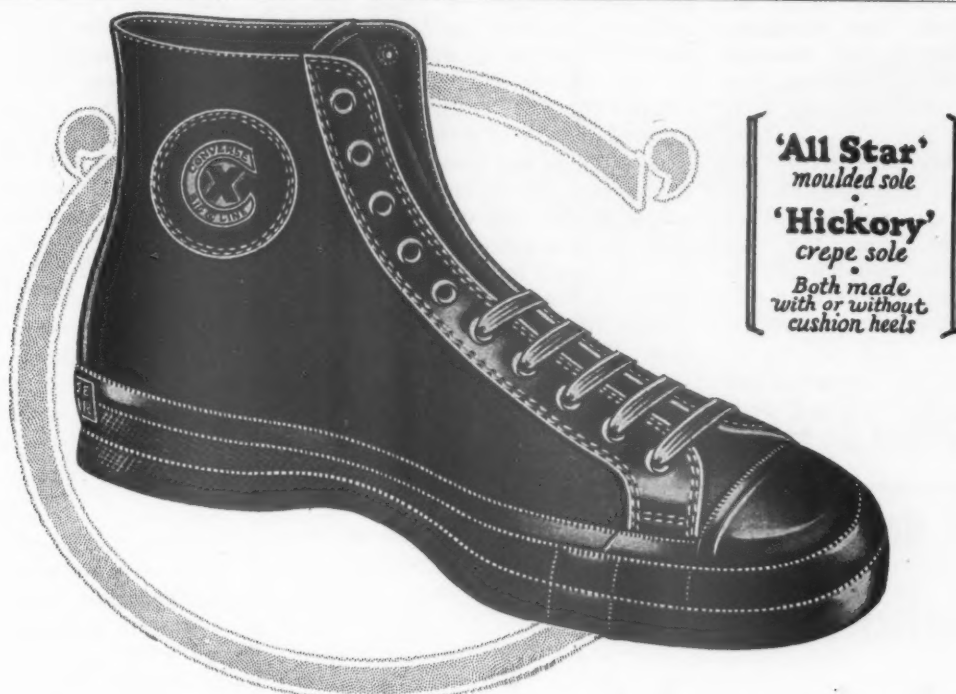
(A) The referee was correct as it is a safety when a forward pass becomes incompletes behind the passer's goal line.

(Q) "A" team is punting from its own 5-yard line and the kick is blocked by a player on "B" team and bounds back in an eccentric manner towards "A" team's goal line. The referee accidentally strikes the ball with his leg causing it to go over "A" team's goal, where it is recovered by "B" team player. The referee rules it a touchdown, which is protested vehemently by "A" team captain, who claims a touchback because the ball's contact with the referee really caused the ball to cross the goal line. Was this rightly a touchdown?

(A) The play was correctly ruled as the ball should be played just as though it had not struck the official.

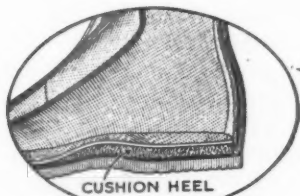
(Q) "A" team punts and the ball rolls to "B" team's 12-yard line where "A" team's end in "covering" a kick dives for the loose ball in order to

(Continued on page 44)



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prevent a possible runback. The "A" player miscalculates the distance, however, and strikes the ball, causing it to go over "B" team's goal line, the "A" team player recovering the oval behind "B" team's goal. The referee rules it a touchback and gives "B" team the ball on its own 20-yard line but the decision is disputed by "A" team captain who claims the ball should have been declared "dead" on "B" team's 12-yard line where an off-side player ("A's" end) first struck it. Which is correct?

(A) The referee was correct as the impetus which carried the ball over the goal line came from the kicking

side and though "B" team had the option of taking the ball on its 12-yard line where it was first touched by an offside player, it was only natural that "B" team would take the greater penalty of a touchback.

(Q) There has been quite some discussion relative to the position of the holder of the ball when attempting a place kick or kickoff; some officials in this section (Indiana) rule that the holder of the ball must in no ways be offside, though other officials differ on this. What is your ruling on this?

(A) The holder of the ball in attempting a place kick or kickoff is not restricted as to the position he may

take, the rules plainly stating that he may NOT be called "offside"; for that matter the holder of the kick may assume a position out-of-bounds, too, should the necessity arise. The kicker would also be allowed to go out of bounds to make the subsequent kick in this instance.

Changes in the Personnel for 1925

(Continued from page 33)

and Harold Ebert will coach the freshmen in football and be head track coach. Boelter further will coach the varsity basketball team and assist Ebert in track.

Willis Zorn, last year athletic director and coach at Hedding College, Abingdon, Illinois, has accepted the position of athletic director at Waite High School, Toledo, Ohio.

Martin Topper, a member of Harry Gill's track team and a graduate of the University of Illinois coaching school, has accepted the position of athletic director of the Junior High School at Crystal Lake, Illinois.

Frances L. Casey of Red Oak, Iowa, who has been athletic director at Salem College, West Virginia, has resigned. He will be succeeded by Ferdinand A. Rockwell of Jackson, Michigan. Rockwell was a consistently good football player on Coach Yost's University of Michigan teams.

Laurence Janssen, who has been coaching the Rock Rapids, Iowa, High School for the last two years, has accepted the position of line coach at South Dakota State College, Brookings, South Dakota. Janssen is a Grinnell College man.

George Lee, for the past five years coach at Marion, Iowa, has accepted a position as athletic director at Olwein, Iowa, High School.

F. D. Tootel, holder of the N. C. A. A. hammer throw record, who won the Olympic championship in the hammer throw at Paris last year will become assistant coach at Rhode Island State College this fall. Tootel, who was one of Johnnie Magee's stars at Bowdoin College, has been coaching at Mercersburg Academy the past year.

Robert Zupke has called two of his old Illini players back to assist him this fall. They are J. L. Klein, who graduated from Illinois in 1918 and F. E. Rokusek, who played end on the 1924 Illini team.

Eugene A. Maynor has been named Director of Athletics and head coach for next year at Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado. Maynor, a graduate of Alabama Polytechnic Institute, acted as assistant football coach one year at Missouri and later

(Continued on page 47)

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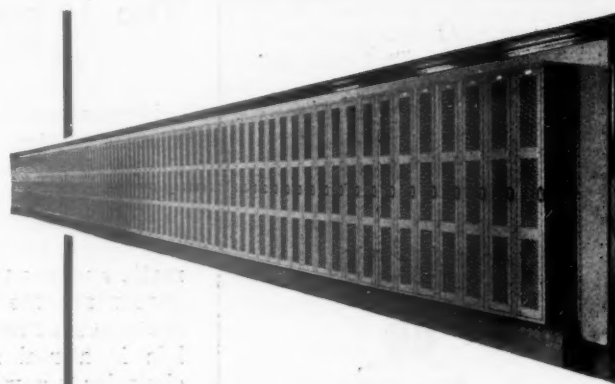
The National Collegiate Athletic Association as a Competitive Organization

SOME time ago in one of Grantland Rice's syndicated articles appeared the statement that "The cardinal creed of the national collegiate body . . . is mass exercise to improve general health and welfare." This statement is inaccurate and misleading. The fact of the matter is—that the National Collegiate Athletic Association was organized for the express purpose of rescuing football from the very dangerous position that it occupied in 1904-1905. There never was a more clean cut example of cause and effect than this one presented by the danger that football would be abolished by school and college authorities, and the calling of a conference which immediately resolved itself into the National Collegiate Athletic Association for the purpose of saving the best competitive team game that ever has been developed. Not only is the truth of the foregoing statement absolutely unassailable, but it is also a fact that for a number of years the National Collegiate devoted practically all of its time and energy to the job of mobilizing the best brains and influences in educational circles to diagnose the ills and prescribe the proper treatment for the conditions that were responsible for the general attacks on football.

When this job appeared to be well organized and the game of football, as a consequence was finding increased favor with thoughtful persons, the N. C. A. A. little by little extended its activities by taking up for consideration various other competitive sports until it deals now in a helpful constructive way with practically every sport in which representative teams have been organized in the various educational institutions.

There grew out of this general campaign for the promotion on a sound basis of representative athletic teams a gradual recognition of the fact that certain evil influences, such as the low standards of eligibility, proselyting, professionalism, loose management of finances, etc., had to be stamped out and replaced by an emphasis upon the development of sportsmanlike attitudes and relationships which have raised the standards of competition and have enabled the athletic system to serve as an important factor in the educational and character development of individuals. The recognition of these positive values in competitive athletics led naturally to the effort to extend these opportunities to the greater masses of students in the institutions through encouragement of "athletics for all." In other words the N. C. A. A. during its twenty years of existence has done more than all other athletic organizations in the country by setting up such an organization and directing athletic competition. An organization which produced not only sportsmanlike contests requiring a high degree of skill and training, but also contests that have educational and character values that are inherent in properly directed athletic activities.

From the foregoing statement, the truth of which cannot be successfully refuted, it will be seen that the National Collegiate Athletic Association is concerned with promoting and improving intercollegiate athletic competition as well as intra-mural athletics.



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The Functions of Competitive Sport

(Continued from page 37)

Now, of course, neither players nor spectators stop very often to analyze their interest in athletics to this extent, but I am of the opinion that the unprecedented popularity that sport now enjoys has grown out of this dramatic analogy to real life. After all, games are merely man-made representations of human endeavor. While life is a real struggle against real obstacles, a game is an artificial struggle against artificial obstacles. If the obstacles are removed, there is no game. But if the obstacles are increased, the complexity of the game is increased and, thereby, the interest in playing it.

Another thing that a boy learns in athletics is to do his best. He learns that mediocrity will not do. Sometimes sport is blamed for this very thing, but I can see no justification for the criticism. It seems to me that there is no lesson more vital for us to learn today than that which teaches the value of doing one's best. I am very glad that sport puts a premium on excellence. I am glad that athletes like to win. I am glad they are willing to put in long hours of thought and practice in order to win, for, it

seems to me, that that is just the sort of training of which most of us stand in great need.

And, too, in athletic competition, a boy learns to put into practice the things he is taught. He learns that a head full of knowledge is of no avail if it cannot be interpreted in terms of action. He learns to *deliver* the package! And that, by the way, is quite a different thing from merely learning *how, when* and *where* the package *should* be delivered.

Furthermore, team games afford actual experience in the use of such qualities as loyalty, courage, concentration, unselfishness, persistency, co-operation, poise, fair play, self-mastery and respect for law and authority. The boy does not merely learn about these qualities in an academic and detached, impersonal way; he actually feels and lives them.

History tells us that nations, with perhaps one or two exceptions, have succeeded in self-government in almost exact proportion to their participation in competitive games and athletics. Three striking examples will suffice for illustration—Greece, in ancient times, and the United States and Great Britain today.

It is very natural that this should be the case, for in competitive team games a boy experiences the very es-

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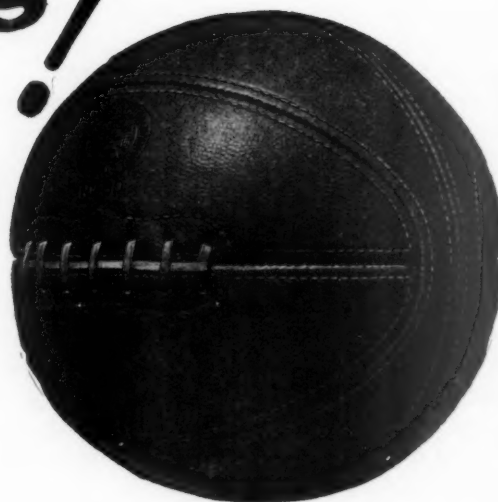
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sence of citizenship. He loses *himself* in a *larger whole*. He undergoes the full experience of a properly directed "gang instinct" at a time when he is in the formative stage of his development and sensations are indelibly impressed upon his consciousness.

These lessons of the playground make possible self-government as opposed to anarchy and the mob. The man who has been through the experience of team games in his boyhood finds little novelty in the ideas of democratic government. He is changing symbols but not principles when he begins to exercise the rights and privileges of citizenship.

It is not a mere coincidence that those countries that have most stressed competitive sport have led in self-government. Sportsmanship is nothing more nor less than citizenship, in its highest form, put into practice. When a boy learns the one, he learns the other.

In this connection John Galsworthy, the eminent English writer, says: "Sport, which still keeps the flag of idealism flying, is perhaps the most saving grace in the world at the moment, with its spirit of rules kept, and regard for the adversary, whether the fight is going for or against. When, if ever, the fair play spirit of sport reigns over international affairs, the cat force which rules there now will slink away and human life emerge for the first time from the jungle."

There is no synonym for the term but if one word were to be chosen that might most nearly express the meaning of sportsmanship I believe that word should be "respect." The good sportsman has respect for his opponent and for his teammates. He respects the authorities under whom he is playing. He respects himself. And, above all, he respects the game. He plays it to the limit of his ability, but he asks no odds nor accepts any unfair advantage. He will conduct himself at all times so as never to bring discredit or criticism to the game he is playing.

Now if sport can teach these things, I believe all will agree with me that it has, indeed, become an educational influence of the highest type, capable of developing a fineness and a strength that not all the shocks of life may destroy or take away. I believe that those of us who have the honor and the privilege of participating, in some degree, in the guidance of this vital part of education have a responsibility which compares, in magnitude of opportunity, with any field of service with which I am acquainted.

Our job as physical educators is to train boys and girls so that they shall be possessed of strong, virile, endur-

ing bodies; of keen, alert, active minds, and of rugged, sound, honest character. In short, our job presents an opportunity to contribute in no small way to the greatest task now confronting our nation—that of making good citizens out of the raw material that comes to us in the forms of our own sons and daughters.

Changes in the Coaching Personnel

(Continued from page 44)

was football coach at Missouri State Teachers College, and for the last two years has been boxing and wrestling

coach at Northwestern University.

The University of Arkansas at Fayetteville, Arkansas, has signed Harrison Barnes, who graduated from the University of Chicago last June, as head baseball and track coach and assistant in football and basketball.

Earl McKown, who holds the world's indoor record in the pole vault and the intercollegiate record outdoors, has been secured to coach the Monmouth High School team this year.

Leo J. Overton, who has been coaching at Homewood, has accepted a position at DeWitt High School, DeWitt, Iowa.

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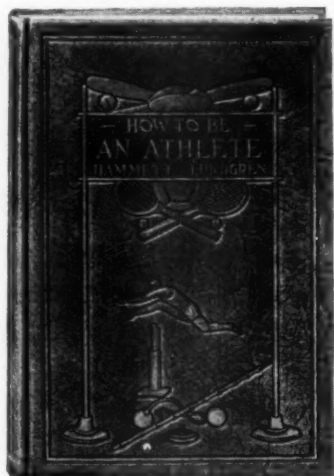
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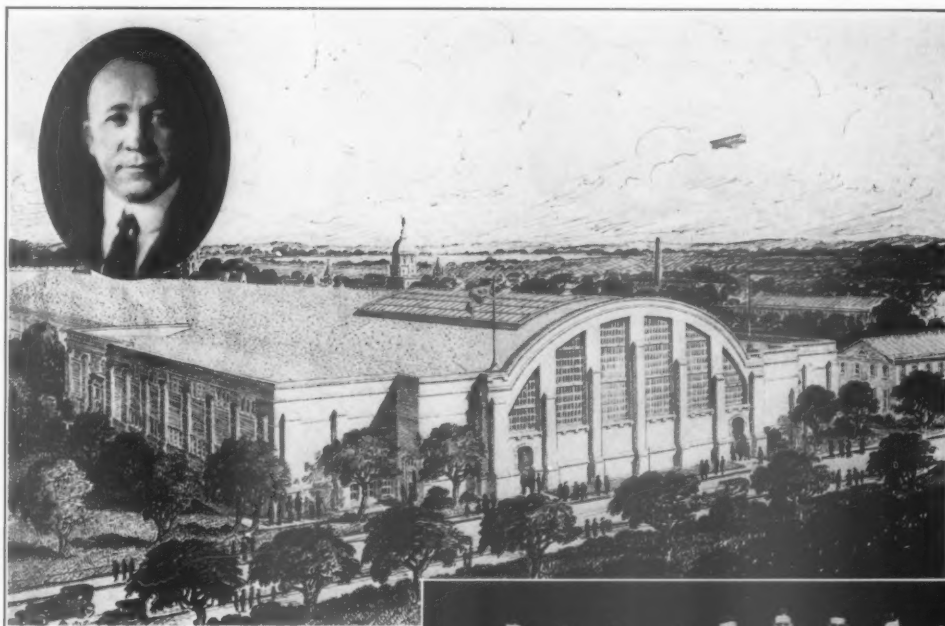
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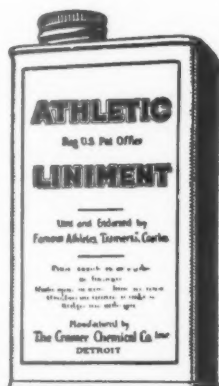
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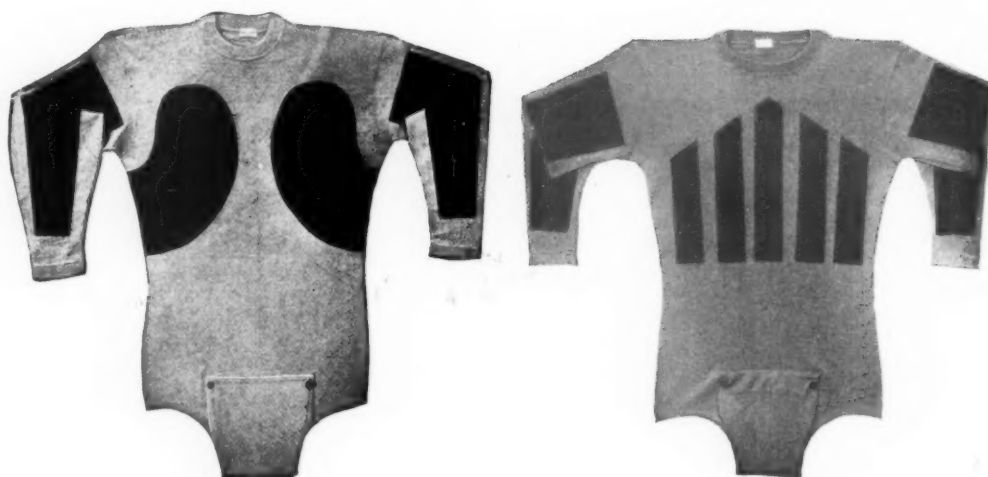
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